

NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW

VOL. II, No. 2

APRIL, 1913

TOTAL No. 6

THE NATIONAL MUNICIPAL LEAGUE AND THE NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW

BY RT. HONORABLE JAMES BRYCE, O.M.

British Ambassador to the United States

THE problems of municipal government in this country are among the most difficult with which its people has to deal, having regard to the extremely rapid growth of the cities and to the enormous influx into them of immigrants, many of whom do not know the language or understand the institutions of the country. There is, therefore, no field of inquiry in which exact knowledge of the facts and a scientific treatment of existing difficulties are more needed than in that of municipal administration, and I venture to believe that the work of the National Municipal League and the service rendered by the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW as its organ may be very great. So much experience is already accumulating in all quarters with regard to the forms and working of municipal institutions, and the best methods of dealing with problems incident to vast populations crowded into the narrow limits of the city, that it is most important to have a journal in which this experience can be recorded and the results of it made available for the students of municipal problems. European experience is hardly less valuable in this respect than American. And just as American experience is valuable to Europe, so too is European experience valuable to America, and I am glad to think that such a journal as the REVIEW exists to record for each continent what the other is doing.

THE MARCH OF DEMOCRACY IN MUNICIPALITIES

BY C. F. TAYLOR¹

Philadelphia

WHEN the only artificial light was the tallow candle, and the source of water for household use was the spring, the well or the cistern, there were no "franchises" concerning these things.

When manufacturing was done chiefly in the household and the blacksmith shop near by, hundreds of operatives did not hasten out of great factories at 6 p.m. to "catch a car" for a distant home. Local transportation was chiefly by foot, for the distances were short, though the streets were frequently very bad. Life was simple, both public and private, and public problems were few and simple.

The United States constitutional convention devised a certain form of government for the nation, which was copied by the states; and, as though the mind of man could devise nothing different for local needs, the same form was imposed upon our municipalities, and, in form of government, cities became miniature states or nations, each with its executive with his cabinet, and (as a rule) two legislative bodies.

But the similarity was only in form and not in authority, for the city was, and still is in most states, in bondage to the legislature, even regarding minute local affairs. The states have always been free in their local autonomy; without interference from congress, but cities have had to seek legislative permission even to stretch a wire across a street.

The discovery of gas and its distribution in pipes under public streets, the distribution of water in pipes under public streets, the laying of tracks on public streets for cars, all involved the use of public streets by private interests, as all these enterprises were undertaken by private companies; and in their nature these services were monopolies, for more than one track on one street was impossible or impracticable. Hence grants to companies were necessary, and these grants were in their nature monopolistic grants. These grants became known as "franchises," and it is fair to state that at first their value was not appreciated by anybody, unless it was by a few acute and far-seeing individuals who were more interested

¹ Dr. Charles F. Taylor has been interested in municipal affairs for many years. It was due to his public spirit that Frank Parsons's book *The City for the People* has received so widespread a circulation. He had 7000 copies of this printed and distributed to every considerable library in this country and to all the leading civicists. He has also edited the Equity Series which have had a wide circulation and which have had a distinct influence upon the movement for direct legislation.—EDITOR.

in obtaining these privileges for themselves than in educating the public concerning their value.

The great and growing value of public franchises in cities and the ease by which they could be obtained was perhaps the beginning of municipal corruption, and perhaps the cause of corruption extending through the entire local political structure, as the letting of contracts to favored contractors for street improvements, for the construction of public buildings, etc.

For many years the inefficiency and corruption of government in our cities was a disgrace to the nation, and this unsavory reputation became world wide. It did not occur to us that the cause might be in the structure of our local governments—that the plan conceived for a great nation, and adopted by states, might not “fit” cities. We attributed the unhappy condition to many causes, but not to the right cause, and the remedy universally advocated was “elect better men.” That was tried time and again and in various places with indifferent or but temporary results. In the meantime, though unknown to us, the God of Terrors was preparing for us a vision—“a pillar of cloud by day and a pillar of fire by night” that would lead us out of the wilderness of inefficiency and corruption.

If ever a heart-breaking tragedy was a blessing in disguise, the Galveston horror of September 8, 1900, was one, though it seems cruel to think of it as such. A catastrophe so horrible a blessing? Impossible. Then let us construe it differently, and say that the Almighty overruled this calamity to our enlightenment.

The hurricane lashed the waters of the Gulf of Mexico into a fury and swept wave after wave over the helpless city, causing wreck and ruin almost beyond description, and the loss of many lives. The old-fashioned city government was incompetent to cope with such a situation, as was that of Chelsea, Massachusetts, after as great a calamity caused by fire in 1908. The test of a person or of an institution is in calamity. The constituted government in both these instances broke down.

Galveston found its salvation—its restoration and continuous efficient government to the present time—in a commission of five, in which was placed all the authority for municipal government, with division of executive duties among the commissioners. Under this commission the city has been remade—the grade of the entire city has been raised to a height thought to be safe from similar calamities, a protective sea wall has been built, and many other vast improvements have been made, all with a far-seeing wisdom, a wonderful efficiency and without a suspicion of “graft.”

Houston, forty miles away, observing the wonderful progress of her once stricken sister under the new form of government, began to plan to follow her example. In December, 1904, the new charter was adopted by

popular vote, and in March, 1905, it was granted to the city by the state legislature.

In Galveston there are no provisions for popular control of the commissioners, except as to bond issues, but this need has not been felt there, because of the superior and public-spirited men fortunately chosen, and the activity of a city club whose influence is powerful in the affairs of the city. Bond issues must be authorized by a majority of the qualified electors who are tax payers. Houston requires that bond issues of over \$100,000 must be submitted to tax paying voters, and also makes the distinct addition to the Galveston plan of requiring a referendum on franchises on the demand of 500 voters, and franchises for more than thirty years *must* be submitted to popular vote without the necessity of a petition. Here we see a decided advance step in practical democracy.

The next decided step (we might call it a "jump") in practical democracy as applied to municipal affairs, was taken by Des Moines, Iowa, in 1908, extending the referendum to ordinances, as well as to bond issues and franchises, and adding the initiative and recall, adding these to the Galveston commission plan. Since then, these three graces, the initiative, referendum and recall, the trinity of democracy, have usually gone hand in hand with the commission form of municipal government in its remarkable sweep from the gulf to the great lakes, and from ocean to ocean.

This outline is painfully brief, but the details of commission government with all its accompaniments may be found in that extremely useful book, *Commission Government in American Cities*, by Ernest S. Bradford, Ph.D. The purpose here is not to dwell on commission government *per se*, but to trace the march of local democracy, and to present what seem to be its immediate prospects. And let it here be clearly stated that while the initiative, referendum and recall are not necessary parts of nor accompaniments to the commission form of municipal government, a happy association of this democratic trinity and the commission idea has been formed, so that one may now say to the other, like Ruth to Naomi, "Whither thou goest, I will go." Indeed this association caused the "Des Moines plan" to take the place of the "Galveston plan" in the minds of municipal reformers all over the country.²

We have been sounding an optimistic note. Now we must sound a minor strain. Look at a map of the United States with the commission governed cities dotted upon it, and we will see great states like New York,

²The great popularity of the initiative, referendum and recall in commission governed cities may be seen by a glance at the tables on pages 273 to 277 of Bradford's book above mentioned, where over 150 cities and towns are tabulated, almost all of which have the initiative, referendum and recall. That was up to August, 1911. Up to February 1, 1913, the number was 222, with an increasing proportion having the initiative, referendum and recall.

Pennsylvania, Ohio and Indiana without a redeeming dot! Ah. The domination of legislatures over the cities of this great nation! The bondage of cities! "Home rule" is an issue and a need in our cities as well as in Ireland.

But the cloud is not so dark as the reader might judge from the paragraph just written. In 1911 a large degree of freedom was given to the cities and towns of New Jersey, and many of them have availed themselves of the provisions of the general act then passed by the legislature of that state. In 1911 the legislature gave to Pittsburgh an improved government, but much inferior to that of the commission cities that we have referred to, and without the initiative, referendum or recall. In September, 1912, Ohio adopted a home rule constitutional amendment, and many of the cities and towns in that state are now actively engaged in revising their charters. Several cities in New York have actually adopted by popular vote improved charters and are now awaiting permission from the legislature to put them into operation, while powerful influences in that great state are working for a general act better than any now in operation in any state, which will apply to all the cities in New York State except New York City. It is our anxious and enthusiastic hope that this act may pass the legislature during the present session. And the legislature of Indiana must do some artful dodging if it shall avoid passing the bill now before it providing for the "business" form of municipal government. The Pennsylvania legislature refused in 1911 to pass Senator Clark's bill providing for commission government with the initiative and referendum in third class cities (up to 100,000 in population), but the good senator was returned by a greatly increased majority, and he is now in Harrisburg with his bill, improved, and it seems probable that the hand of tyranny reaching from Harrisburg to the throat of every municipality in the great Keystone state will soon be at least relaxed, if not removed.

These are only samples of the great activity in the field of municipal democracy now in progress all over the United States. But these samples are taken from the darkest places. The light of democracy is rapidly coming, which will banish the darkness.

Here we are tempted to pronounce an apostrophe to democracy, the light bearer, the deliverer from bondage, the Goddess of Liberty! But let us restrain ourselves and consider quietly and deliberately the question, What *is* democracy? In answering this question we will avoid the words of the dictionary and consider rather the larger essence.

On close scrutiny we find that in essence democracy does *not* consist in the number of candidates we are permitted to vote for, nor in the frequency of voting. The object of government is honesty and efficiency in the management of public affairs in harmony with the popular will; and to secure these is the purpose of democracy. The method of securing

these most certainly, most easily, most promptly and least expensively is the concern of democracy.

Democracy does not wish to divorce itself from representative government, but it *does* demand the possibility of ultimate popular control of its affairs and its officers; and it demands adequate machinery for accomplishing these ends when occasion may arise. Democracy is unthinkable without the possibility of ultimate control by the electorate. The initiative and referendum are the means for controlling public affairs by the voters, and the recall is the means of controlling officers. Democracy insists upon possessing these instrumentalities as a primary right. But it wishes representative government to be so improved and perfected that it will meet the wishes and demands of democracy so faithfully and perfectly that the instruments of primary democracy, the initiative, referendum and recall, will seldom or never be called into operation. Representative government is the improved and labor saving machine which we wish to use and will use as long as it is truly representative. But the moment that it fails to do its work truly and faithfully, we insist upon the privilege of falling back upon the more cumbersome, but always true machinery until the new machine shall again "ring true" and do its work faithfully.

Democracy does not wish to be officious. Democracy welcomes the short ballot as an improvement in the machinery of democracy—an improvement by which the purposes of democracy may be achieved more directly and more easily than by the confusing maze of the long ballot. Commission government of cities gives a much shorter ballot than the old form of government, and democracy welcomes it because experience proves that it better accomplishes the purpose of democracy—good government.

Democracy emphasizes methods, because, other things being equal, the best methods produce the best results. The commission plan of municipal government was a vast improvement *in method* over the old style; hence very welcome to democracy, but never entirely safe without the initiative, referendum and recall being associated with it. But the commission plan as at present practised does not satisfy advanced thinkers. The commissioners are elected by the city at large (so far, so good), but by the *block vote*, which leaves large masses of voters unrepresented. The commissioners have a plurality or a majority of voters behind them, but the block vote ("vote for five") puts the same voters behind every commissioner. The single vote ("vote for one") would procure better representation, but one or two popular candidates may have majorities so large that the lowest successful candidate may go in with a very small vote. The single *transferable* vote with multiple choices (the "Hare" or some similar system) would give a unanimous constituency, instead of a majority or plurality constituency, to each commissioner, thus leaving no part

of the electorate unrepresented. This system is erroneously called "proportional representation," because in partizan contests it *may*, and if desired *will*, return elected representatives in proportion to the numerical strength of the parties entering the contest. In municipal government we discourage partizan contests; but *if* party strife should enter a municipal contest, the block vote is far more dangerous than the Hare system, because all the commissioners elected would belong to the same party. And, particularly for municipal purposes, let us cease to call the Hare system a method of producing proportional representation, but rather a method of *effective voting*, by which every voter may express his true preferences without "throwing away" his vote, and a method which will place a *unanimous* constituency behind every elected commissioner.

This method will reduce democracy to a single effective vote; but if the writer may be considered a champion of democracy, he is satisfied with it, because, by that plan *every vote is effective*; and the plan will produce results highly satisfactory to democracy.

Other features of the commission plan as now practised are now under scrutiny; as, shall the commissioners themselves be heads of departments? or shall they be prominent men of superior judgment who shall not be expected to devote their time to administrative work, but who shall only determine policies and select administrative officers and supervise their work—perhaps only one such officer, a "city manager." We mention these things only to say that they are not inconsistent with democracy so long as we have the democratic trinity as a basis and as a refuge in case of need, but always hoping that the need will not come.

THE MUNICIPAL HEALTH PROBLEM¹

BY M. N. BAKER²

Montclair, N. J.

IN an ideal city every inhabitant would be guarded at every point from menace to life or health by causes beyond his control and would be so instructed by one means or another as to make it readily possible for him to guard himself against dangers which are within his individual control. The health problem of today is how to make this ideal a reality. As will be seen, the problem is two-fold. It includes matters affecting the health of the community as a whole which must be controlled in turn by the city as a whole and matters which concern the individual alone and must in large measure be controlled by him. In other words, the problem is one of public health and of private health.

For the present at least, the health of the individual, in so far as it depends on his own action or lack of action, must be left to him, except in so far as he is instructed by the state or the city how to conserve his health.

How to instruct the individual so that he can guard himself against all menaces to health which are within his control is an educational problem which as yet has been given scarcely any attention, but it undoubtedly will be the basis of a large part of the public health work of the future. If time permitted, it would be possible to show that if each person were thoroughly instructed in health protection and lived up to his knowledge the public health problem would be greatly simplified if not entirely solved.

¹ Municipal health and sanitation is a subject to which the National Municipal League has been giving attention since 1907 when it created a committee on the subject as a result of the all-day conference held in connection with the Providence meeting. Dr. Alexander C. Abbott of Philadelphia was the first chairman and in 1909 was succeeded by M. N. Baker who has made yearly reports of great value and helpfulness. The paper presented at the Los Angeles meeting to which this is a note represents an important constructive contribution to the whole problem. Other reports presented by Mr. Baker deal with the questions of "Municipal Health Problems and the General Public" and "City and State Boards of Health and the Proposed Federal Department of Health." He has also contributed a paper in regard to the board of health of Montclair, N. J. The question has also been discussed by others, among the more important contributions being: "Work for Personal and Public Hygiene in Rochester," Dr. George W. Goler; "Sanitation in Providence," Dr. Charles C. Chapin; "Chicago's Municipal Sanitation," Dr. William A. Evans; "Health and Sanitation in the District of Columbia," William Creighton Woodward, M.D.; "Public Health and Municipal Sanitation in Cleveland," William Travis Howard, M.D.; "The Relation of Municipal Sanitation to the State and the National Government," Dr. Charles O. Probst, Columbus, Ohio; "The Work of Boards of Health," George A. Soper, Ph.D.; "Economy and Efficiency in Municipal Health Administration Work," Selskar M. Gunn.—C. R. W.

² Editor, *Engineering News*, New York City, and president board of health, Montclair, N. J.

Certainly this would be the case if each person followed the golden rule by doing unto others in health matters as he would have them do to him: that is, if he refrained from any action which would endanger the health of others.

Considering the extent to which the curricula of our schools and colleges are already overburdened, one hesitates to urge that it should be the duty of our educational institutions to give each pupil full instruction regarding the preservation of his health, in so far as this is practicable. Yet it may well be asked what kind of education could be more valuable than this.

Two difficulties arise at this point: one is that few persons live up to their present limited knowledge of health conservation so that if everyone who passes through our schools and colleges were fully instructed how to guard his health, but few would make full use of this knowledge. The other is that a large proportion of the population has already passed beyond or never been benefited by instruction in the schools and in the universities. Moreover, all knowledge is ever progressing, so the health education problem does not cease with the reception of the school or college diploma.

The best we can expect to do for the present and immediate future is to make sure that during his school life every youth be thoroughly instructed in the principles of public and private health and that beyond this there be made readily available to every person by means of public lectures and printed matter such instruction in health protection as he can utilize. This does not mean that every person is to become his own physician, but merely that he shall be informed as to those things which he should do or not do for the protection of his health.

Education aside, the health protective work of the municipality is concerned with protecting the individual from dangers to health and life which are beyond his control. Intelligent effort is dependent upon clear and exact knowledge of what these dangers are. A large part of the health protective work of our cities is misdirected because of lack of this knowledge. This misdirected work may be essential to the comfort and convenience of the citizens but it falls properly in other city departments by which it can be performed more efficiently. By confining its efforts to its own proper field a health department will gain in efficiency and will have less difficulty in securing the necessary funds for its work.

The chief menace to health beyond the control of the individual and within the domain of the health department is infection by the germs of some communicable disease. It, therefore, follows that the primary work of a municipal health department should be the control of communicable diseases. Since all infection of this kind springs from an individual suffering from one of these diseases the fight should be concentrated on controlling the diseases at their source. This means the promptest possible identification of every person suffering from or harboring the germs of

any communicable disease and the establishment and continuance of such means of control as will prevent the spread of infection to others. These facts are more or less fully recognized by all municipal health officers worthy the name, but as yet they are little appreciated by the general public and for this and other reasons are not made the basis of full and proper remedial or preventive action by every health department of the country.

The spread of communicable diseases from persons harboring disease germs is by direct or by indirect routes of infection. If attending physicians, nurses and responsible heads of families as well as the patients themselves did their full duty in preventing the escape of infectious material, both direct and indirect infection would be reduced to very small proportions. It is the special province of the health department to see that this is done. If every health department did its full duty in this respect a large part of the other work which health departments now attempt to do would be unnecessary.

Indirect infection from communicable diseases spreads chiefly by the pollution of water, milk and other food supplies, the air, various household utensils and the clothing and bedding of the patient. This pollution, as already stated, arises through improper control or lack of control of the person infected. A considerable amount of infection both direct and indirect springs from undiagnosed cases of disease or from persons who are harboring disease germs without injury to themselves. Because of these facts there will always be more or less infection of water and food supplies, but this infection will diminish as the sum total of infectious disease is reduced by health protective work. For a long time to come it will be necessary to guard water and food supplies from possible unidentified sources of infection and in some cases to install and operate works for the removal or destruction of such disease germs as may have gained access to foods and drinks, particularly water and milk supplies. These works of purification or destruction should not as a rule be operated by health departments, although some of them may very properly be inspected by these departments. Reasons for this statement will be given later.

Closely associated with the control of communicable diseases is the reduction of infant mortality. As is well known, many of the communicable diseases make their attack early in life and have as their chief harvest infants and young children. To control communicable diseases, therefore, is to reduce infant mortality in large degree, but even after deducting the attacks from communicable diseases upon children there remains a heavy slaughter of the innocents. The prevention or reduction of this slaughter by agencies outside the control of communicable diseases should be one of the chief efforts of every health department. This is not the time nor place to present and discuss statistics of infant mortality. The subject is mentioned in order to lay emphasis upon the fact that the con-

trol of communicable diseases and the reduction of infant mortality are two lines of work which demand the chief attention of our municipal health departments today, both because of the large number of deaths in these two classes and because work in these two fields may be made tellingly effective and can be measured in terms of lives saved, whereas work in most of the other lines attempted by boards of health in America is vague and indefinite, and if it yields any results worthy of the effort, the results are uncertain and cannot be recorded in vital statistics, which are the chief means of testing the efficiency of health protective work.

This brings me to one of the main points of my discussion, which is the need of better means than are now employed by most municipal health departments to judge the efficiency of their work. This subject has been brought home to me with increasing emphasis during the eighteen years of my connection with a local board of health. Properly classified, complete and accurate vital statistics show better than anything else the health of the community from year to year and if properly studied in connection with the various lines of health protective work they should indicate the efficiency or inefficiency of the work. They should also indicate, and this is of great importance, whether or not the funds placed at the disposal of the health department are being wisely distributed among the several branches of work.

After much study I have concluded that the efficiency of municipal health departments could be greatly increased by a classification of their annual expenditures in such a way as to show clearly from year to year the amounts of money spent to achieve specific objects. The classification should, so far as possible, be designed to measure the cost of results achieved and show their effect upon vital statistics. Such a classification is properly named functional. In a tentative classification of this kind which I formulated, all health board expenditures were first divided into (I) Direct health-protective work; (II) Indirect or remote health-protective work; and (III) General; the latter to include such overhead and other expenses as are not readily distributed between the first two classes.

Under (I) or direct health-protective work were placed first the prevention and control of communicable diseases; second the reduction of infant mortality, and third, general health building and maintenance. Each of these three main subdivisions is still further divided, as may be seen by the detailed schedule given at the end of this paper.

Indirect or remote health-protective work includes a large variety of undertakings, some of which are rarely placed under boards of health and all of which should and will I hope ultimately be placed in other municipal departments. These undertakings may all be described as cleansing operations and I have divided them into municipal cleansing and private cleansing. Under municipal cleansing are placed the collection and disposal

of garbage, ashes, rubbish and other associated refuse, street dirt and sewage. I have also put here smoke prevention, fly, mosquito and rat reduction. Under private cleansing I have placed all matters pertaining to the control of plumbing and suppression of smells and various other nuisances.

It may seem either radical or reactionary, according to one's point of view, to class these various undertakings as indirect or remote health-protective work. In a well organized scheme of municipal administration, some of these undertakings should unquestionably be placed under other departments than the one designed to safeguard public health, even though they have more or less effect upon health, while others are chiefly matters of comfort or convenience. Most of the operations under indirect or remote health-protective work involve the expenditure of large sums of money in the employment and direction of many employees for the conduct of public works which, as already suggested, can be more efficiently administered by other departments. In so far as these cleansing operations have any considerable effect upon the public health it will be sufficient if the health department inspects the work and insists upon its proper performance. Sewerage and sewage disposal and street cleaning and sprinkling are not often entrusted to health departments, but since this is done in some cases, they have been inserted in this list. The collection and disposal of garbage is often entrusted to the health department, but it has nothing like the vital relation to public health that sewerage and sewage disposal have, which are seldom placed under the health department, and still less than the public water supply, which is almost never administered by the public health department. The fact of the matter is that if everything directly and indirectly affecting public health were to be placed under the health department it would embrace nearly every line of municipal activity. Progressive health officers and sanitarians are becoming more and more firmly of the opinion that the work of health departments should be restricted to the control of communicable diseases, the reduction of infant mortality and such other work of general inspection and supervision as will hold other municipal departments, private corporations and individuals up to their duty in the way of providing pure water, pure milk and other foods, unadulterated and otherwise safe drugs, proper housing, and the regulation of other environmental conditions affecting the health of the individual citizen and of the people as a whole.

It should be understood that the classification of health board expenditures which I have proposed is not only tentative, but is also subject to regrouping to meet the widely differing local conditions which prevail in the different parts of the country. For instance, fly, mosquito or rat reduction in some large sections of the country would make for the comfort and convenience of the public, while in others it would have a vital relation to public health. The suppression of such pests or nuisances might, there-

fore, be classed under indirect health-protective work in one city, for the time being at least, because, ultimately, under proper municipal and private cleansing, flies, mosquitoes and rats will cease to exist or will fall in numbers to a tolerable, irreducible minimum which would have no effect upon public health. Finally, so far as this phase of my subject is concerned, it should be understood that my tentative classification of health board expenditures, while available as a possible general basis of a system of accounting, is designed chiefly to point out the need for the formulation and adoption of some classification which shall show whether the funds available to a health department, which are often far less than it needs, are being wisely apportioned among the different objects of expenditure and whether some of the money now used for remote or even doubtful health-protective work might not far better be used for work which has direct bearing upon the conservation of health and the prolongation of life.

An important and difficult phase of the municipal health problem which should never be lost sight of is how well-trained and efficient health officers, with their various classes of assistants, are to be secured and retained in office. Until recently, there have been no schools for the training of health officers in the United States. The schools recently established are far too few in number and most of them fail to offer the courses needed for the efficient training of health officers and sanitary inspectors. While this is a true and deplorable condition and one which we should all aim to remedy as rapidly as possible the fact should not be lost sight of that many of our cities are not employing as health officers and inspectors the best of the men available for the work. All friends of good and efficient municipal government and all interested in the maintenance of public health should unite in an effort to secure and retain the best available men for the public health service and to set higher and higher standards of education and efficiency. The medical, engineering, biological and chemical schools of the country will most assuredly respond to an increasing demand for more, and for better trained, health officers.

Thoughtful consideration should be given to the place occupied by the health department in the general scheme of municipal government. This has already been suggested in so far as the work of the department is concerned, but such questions remain as whether the department should be headed by a board or by a single officer and whether the department should be independent of, or subordinate to, other branches of the city government. For progressive, fearless work there is little question but that organization as an independent department with legislative as well as executive powers is the best plan. This would be inconsistent with some schemes of municipal government, including the commission plan, which makes the commission the fountain-head of all authority. Possibly the sacrifice resulting from making a health department subordinate instead

of independent may be offset by other benefits resulting from a scheme of absolutely centralized government. But if a health department is to be a subordinate branch of the city government and particularly if it is to possess no legislative power, efficiency demands a single executive head.

It goes without saying that the health officer like the head of any purely executive department should be appointed not elected to office. For the greatest efficiency of his department he should have power to appoint and dismiss all his subordinates, subject only to such limits as may be imposed by civil service regulations. Whether or not the chief executive health officer should be chosen by civil service examinations is a question open to discussion and the same is true only in a lesser degree of his chief assistants, at least in the larger cities of the country. If, however, permanence of tenure or continuance in office during efficiency and good behavior is possible in no other way then by all means the chief executive health officer and all his assistants should be under the civil service.

It may not be amiss to call attention to the fact that under the new Los Angeles charter as tentatively drafted the chief executive health officer is only one of a presumably large number of city officials subordinate to the commissioner of public welfare. He will be nominated by the commissioner who serves as mayor and his nomination must be confirmed by the commission as a whole. He will, therefore, be nominally under the control of one and actually under the control of seven, while at the same time he will be under special obligations to the mayor who alone can nominate him to office. Under the Los Angeles charter, legislation affecting the public health, like all other legislation, is under the direct control of the legal voters of the city through the initiative and the referendum. The commission can, of course, enact such health legislation as it chooses, but this will always be subject to veto by popular vote. Under such conditions, the position of the executive health officer, if he be a well trained, well informed, progressive and fearless man, will unquestionably be beset with many difficulties and some obstacles which will be unsurmountable, or at least unsurmountable for many years. In many much needed health reform measures he will first have to educate the commissioner of public welfare, then a majority of the commission and finally, if the referendum is invoked on health ordinances, a majority of the voters of the city. In addition, the chief health officer and presumably his assistants are to be subject to the recall.

I mention these undeniable facts not to condemn the commission plan in general or the commission plan in its application to Los Angeles, but merely to call attention to them as conditions which must be met in the future health protective work of the city. I do not undertake the task of comparing health department conditions under the proposed charter with those which prevail under the present charter. The comparison,

if any were drawn, should be with an ideal system of municipal health organization.

One of the great underlying principles of the commission plan is that the people should rule. Fundamentally desirable as this may be, no one who advocates democratic government carried to its extreme should forget that rule by the people, especially in a large city—to confine the statement to municipal health administration—gives the most ignorant foreigner lately naturalized an equal vote on health-protective matters with the physician, the engineer and the sanitarian who has given all his mature years to the study of measures for the conservation and prolongation of life. If the inherent rights of humanity demand this, it is imperative that no effort should be spared to select and retain in office the very highest grade of public health officials obtainable and to keep them free from sinister influences of whatever kind so that they will exercise such powers as are conferred upon them by the people without fear or favor and in accordance with the latest teachings of sanitary science and public health.

If the mass of the voters are to legislate in public health matters it becomes doubly important that every citizen, as suggested at the outset of this paper, be thoroughly instructed in the principles of public health. This makes the health educational problem one of vital importance. The educational problem is of vital importance under any scheme of municipal or state government which may prevail since upon the intelligence and the morals of the public at large and each individual composing it the health of the public and the individual alike depend. The health department, like the police department, would scarcely be a necessity if every citizen was educated to high standards of knowledge of health and of morals and lived up to both standards.

FUNCTIONAL CLASSIFICATION OF HEALTH BOARD EXPENDITURES SUGGESTED
BY M. N. BAKER, AUGUST, 1911

I Direct health-protective work

1. Prevention and control of communicable diseases
 - a. Laboratory
 - b. Notification and investigation
 - c. Immunization
 - d. Isolation in the home
 - e. Hospitalization
 - f. Disinfection
 - g. Medical school inspection—for communicable diseases
 - h. Records
 - i. Educational
2. Reduction in infant mortality
 - a. Medical
 - b. Nursing
 - c. Supplying milk, etc.

- d. Records
 - e. Educational
 - 3. General health-building and maintenance
 - a. Laboratory
 - b. Physical and mental inspection of school children
 - c. Housing control
 - d. Factory inspection
 - e. Milk control
 - f. Pure food and drugs
 - g. Pure water
 - h. Pure air
 - Ventilation
 - Gas inspection
- II Indirect or remote health-protective work
 - 1. Municipal cleansing
 - a. Garbage
 - b. Ashes
 - c. Rubbish
 - d. Dead animals
 - e. Offal and market refuse
 - f. Night soil
 - g. Sewage
 - h. Street cleaning and sprinkling
 - i. Smoke prevention
 - j. Fly reduction
 - k. Mosquito reduction
 - l. Rat reduction
 - m. Records
 - n. Educational
 - o. publicity
 - 2. Private cleansing
 - a. Plumbing permits and inspection
 - b. Suppression of smells and miscellaneous nuisances
- III General—so far as not distributable under heads and sub-heads of II and III
 - 1. Records
 - a. Vital statistics
 - b. Accounting
 - c. Miscellaneous
 - 2. Research
 - 3. Publicity
 - 4. Legal
 - 5. General supplies—including rent, water, light, heat, etc.
 - 6. Administrative salaries

Distribute under each head and sub-head, as far as practicable, every such item as salaries, supplies (including freight, express and cartage), transportation, publicity, communication (postage, telephone, telegraph), educational, research, legal, records, etc. Sums that cannot be so distributed, which should be comparatively few and small, go under III, General, but even here they should not go under "miscellaneous" or "unclassified."

Communicable diseases, items *a* to *f*, should preferably be given separately for each disease, or at least for typhoid fever, scarlet fever, diphtheria and tuberculosis.

This classification is easily expanded by further classification to any extent desired, and it may be simplified even more readily by omitting all the sub-heads designated by letters or still further by using only the three grand divisions I, II and III. In either case of simplification the sub-heads not used as separate accounts would serve as a guide to such of the classifications or accounts as were retained

CONSTRUCTIVE HOUSING REFORM

BY CAROL ARONOVICI, PH.D.¹

Philadelphia

THE wide spread and far reaching movement in the direction of improving the character and conditions of our housing accommodations as carried on in the United States may be characterized as an effort to improve and control existing evils, rather than as a broad social movement towards far reaching housing reform. The accomplishments of the last decade and a half center about the individual dwelling as a thing apart from the community, while the complicated legislative and administrative machinery provided is intended as a means of dealing with a fixed minimum of safety and sanitation regardless of the effect that such minimum may have upon the community as a whole both socially and economically.

The reason for this failure to meet adequately and permanently a momentous problem should not be sought in the indifference of the public, nor in the lack of appreciation on the part of legislators and social reformers of the importance of dealing with the housing problem promptly and adequately, but in the fundamental error so frequent in reform work: namely a lack of careful and extensive study of the causes of the problem and the undertaking of changes and improvements on a broad, scientific basis. Instead of asking "what shall we do with the tenement" we should ask "why the tenement?" instead of centering our entire attention upon restrictive and almost confiscatory legislation intended to reduce the evil we should endeavor to provide adequate answers to the questions that relate to the causes that make housing evils possible and necessary, instead of dealing with structural defects and the revolting evils attending them we should attempt to use this knowledge as an incentive to investigation which will strike at the very root of the evil, so that fundamental principles may be discovered and lasting reform secured.

We do not propose in the present article to offer a complete study of the fundamental causes of the housing problem and the principles that underly them. All we can hope to do is to suggest a more or less broad outline for future study, with a view to meeting the essential requirements of constructive housing reform.

Hundreds of cities in the United States have within recent years made studies of their housing conditions, or rather housing evils, and the writer

¹ General secretary, Suburban Planning Association, Philadelphia. Dr. Aronovici is director of the national bureau of municipal and social service and has within recent years been employed as an expert on housing in over a score of New England cities.

is responsible for more than a score of such studies. With very few exceptions these studies present material that bears mainly upon sanitary conditions. The recommendations and final action on the part of private citizens as well as legislative and administrative departments of city and state governments have been mainly of a sanitary character. This was unavoidable. The vast literature available in this country has dealt with conditions rather than causes. The reforms, if reforms they may be called, have been the natural outcome of the point of view of those interested and supposedly best informed leaders in the movement. Even the most widely known and most authoritative book published in the United States within recent years bearing the title *Housing Reform* is mainly a dissertation on "lobbying" for housing legislation. It lacks the vision of the German studies where such splendid results have been accomplished within recent years, and where the housing problem has been recognized as being the result of the lack of foresight in the building of our cities. As cities are the "hope of democracy" and the home of civilization providing adequate homes is the foremost duty of the state and the city. These provisions should be placed upon a sound economic basis since the quality of the homes occupied by the mass of the people is largely determined by economic factors.²

Before we enter upon the discussion of the requirements of proper housing accommodations and their relation to the community two important facts should be pointed out in order to emphasize the difference between the problem abroad and the problem as it exists in the United States.

The Americans of the present day, I mean that amalgamation of races and nationalities, the opportunity-seeking multitude living under the American flag, are not home builders. The country is growing too rapidly and opportunities are coming into being in such new and varied sections of the country, that stability is impossible and home building hazardous. In other words the constant shifting of industries and the lack of stability of employment compel many of the wage earners to move on and on until we are facing the problem of housing a vast army of *nomad industrial herds* which follow the trail of migrating industry, invade cities and towns and endanger the economic, sanitary and moral standards of communities.

Another factor in the housing problem in America is immigration which taxes the housing capacity of the oldest and best established communities to a point where health is endangered and a general lowering of the physical and moral fiber of the people results.

To draw the comparison a little closer, it should be said that the cities of Europe are facing a problem of housing due to a general rise in the

² Posadowsky: *Die Wohnungsfrage als Kulturprobleme*. Ernest Reinhardt, Pub., 1910.

Prof. Dr. L. Pohle: *Die Wohnungsfrage*, vol. i, p. 6, 1910.

standard of living and a gradual normal growth of the population closely related to and with a real love for place of birth. In America the housing problem, due to a normal increase in population and a rise in standards among the natives, is seriously aggravated by immigration and a spasmodic and dangerous shifting of population from one center to another.

For the sake of clearness we have endeavored to define constructive housing reform. The definition is as follows: *The providing of healthful accommodations, adequately provided with facilities for privacy and comfort, easily accessible to centers of employment, culture and amusement, accessible from the centers of distribution of the food supply, rentable at reasonable rates and yielding a fair return on the investment.*

This definition differs from the usual conception of housing reform in the recognition of the economic factor and in the socializing element which regards the individual home in organic relationship to the business of life and labor in the community. Let us consider each phase of the problem as presented in the definition in the order given.

Healthful accommodations. This is an age of fighting disease and protecting health. Pure food laws, national health departments, open air schools, medical school inspection, limited hours of labor for women and children, protection against accident are the order of the day. Human life is becoming more and more valuable and its preservation is gradually taking place among the positive sciences. It is easily conceivable therefore that housing reform should have been made a subsidiary of a large health movement. The failure of housing reform solely as a health movement is the natural outcome of a narrow vision and its consequent limited method of procedure.

The sum total of all reform work leading towards improved sanitary conditions in the home has found its most potent expression in legislation and the administrative machinery provided for its enforcement. This sanitary legislation has been so exacting and far reaching that it has been mistaken for the whole of housing reform. That the fundamental principle of this legislation has been prohibitory and restrictive goes without saying, since little legislation intended to promote and encourage good conditions is ever passed by our state or national legislature. We have come to a common agreement that the tenement or multiple dwelling is undesirable and we have proceeded to legislate against it, emphasizing the evils of the large city and forgetting the smaller communities. The result has been that we have driven the tenement builder out of the city and have permitted him to infest the smaller communities. We have placed confiscatory regulations upon the large dwelling and have thereby reduced the number of such buildings without providing a substitute in the form of subsidies or other means for fostering the building of the single and more desirable dwelling. The result of this method of procedure has been a

rapid increase in the rental rates with increase in the cost of construction and a limiting of the supply of homes necessitated by an abnormal increase in population; a condition that has further helped to raise the rental rates.

The fact that most of the restrictive legislation is confined to the new structures and leaves the old and dilapidated building under the control of regulations that do not go beyond a minimum standard of safety and sanitation has encouraged the continued maintenance of old and ill adapted dwellings which have proved a strong competitor of the builder of sanitary homes.

We have no fault to find with the present agitation for the securing of comprehensive and enforceable housing legislation. Many of the laws already in force are models of the art of law making, but they fall short because they meet only part of the problem and place a premium upon the structure that is old and least desirable for the purposes for which it is used. If the rights of private property make strict legislation for the control of old houses impossible, some advantages should be placed in the hands of the builder of new and sanitary houses so that he may not suffer through unfair competition created by one sided restrictions.

Privacy and comfort. As in the case of health, privacy and comfort are provided for in the laws now in force throughout the country. That the standards set by these laws are not above a minimum no one doubts, but that even this minimum when not coupled with favorable conditions for its attainment is an increased financial burden upon the tenant can not be doubted. To what extent rents are affected by a rise in the standards of privacy and comfort when provided by law little is known although it is an aspect of the problem that should commend itself to the attention of housing reformers, as a condition that must be met on a purely economic basis.

Accessibility to place of employment.—The experience of New York City, where factories have made their homes in the most congested section of the city in order to be within easy reach of the labor supply indicates that there is a close relationship between the location of the home and the place of employment. The congestion of population that is becoming more and more serious in our cities further emphasizes a tendency of which New York is the most flagrant example.

How to meet the problem of accessibility to the labor market and centers of employment has not been the concern of the housing reformer, and yet the lower east side of New York and many of the slums of our larger and even the smaller cities and towns are largely the result of an inadequate distribution of manufacturing plants and the absence of easy means of intercommunication provided either by intelligent community planning or cheap and efficient means of transit. That the wage earner and his family have followed the line of least resistance should not be a matter of surprise

or criticism. A low wage and a long working day are important considerations in determining the distance between the place of employment and the home. Especially is this true where the transportation system is inadequate and requires an hour or two out of the limited leisure of the wage earner during which time he is packed into stuffy cars with not wholly dependable time schedules.

Recently a hopeful tendency has developed among manufacturing concerns. Many of them are moving out of the congested parts of our large cities to smaller communities or into the open country. This removal is due to an increased demand for the expansion of business which is made impossible by the high cost of land in the congested sections of our cities. The removal of the manufacturing plant from the center of population and the supply of labor to sparsely settled districts is extremely interesting. It follows soon after the exodus of the country folk to the city has taken place. This game of hide and seek between labor and employment centers shows how full of blunders our process of community building is. It is now time for the housing reformer to follow up the industrial exodus countryward with a housing policy which will avoid the congestion created by the same industries in the city and lay the foundation for a community planning policy that will keep the multiple dwelling out of the open country and allow the light to shine in every room and grass to grow about every home that is to be built.

That an efficient and cheap transportation system is essential to a reduction of congestion is obvious. In the newer communities however and those which have not been fully developed as industrial centers a community plan carefully distributing homes and industry and taking advantage of every opportunity for the reduction of distances without increasing congestion is the only safe means so far discovered that can and will render congestion impossible in the future.

Accessibility to centers of culture and amusement. Congestion, long hours of labor and the necessities presented by a highly developed civilization have created demand for culture and amusement which must be met and which, because of their psychic rather than physical character, are most difficult to handle. It is only under the stress of the most pressing need that efficient workers are willing to leave the privileges afforded by the city for the monotony of the country district. The "great white way," the theaters, free lectures, libraries are assets which the wage earner considers as part of his rights as resident of a large city. If he is to move from the city these privileges must be brought within easy reach of his new residence, or something that is as good or better in his estimation must be substituted. The cry "back to the land" will not be heard by the wage earner of the city unless he can carry with him all the advantages that urban life affords. A movement countryward must and will be accom-

panied by a gradual urbanizing of the rural communities and a closer and easier contact with the things of the city.

The reduction and final removal of congestion from our large cities will be accomplished more easily and with less loss of time if cultural and amusement centers are provided in the newer communities at points that will make them accessible to the larger proportion of the population, by locating them according to a plan based upon the principle of economy of time and maximum of service. Where communities have already become integrated to an extent that makes extensive planning impracticable, cheap and comfortable rapid transit facilities only will lure the mass of the people from the slum and tenement district into more sparsely settled districts.

Accessibility to food supply. So far we have dealt with factors which are mainly sanitary and psychic, we shall now deal with the economic factors in housing reform.

The cost of the food supply depends to a very considerable extent upon the quantities required in certain sections and the nearness to the center of distribution. On the east side of New York the cost of food is considerably lower than it is in other cities where there is less congestion and where the centers of distribution are less accessible. Even within the limits of New York a difference in the cost of food will be found and this variation in cost stands in indirect ratio with increase in congestion and distance from distribution center. The economic advantages presented by a low price of food can be readily seen, especially where families are large and wages are low.

It is true that so far we have not secured sufficient data upon which to base reliable conclusions concerning the differences in cost of food as determined by congestion and the distance from distributing centers. Every observation points in this direction, but further inquiry should be made so that the determining factors in the cost of food may be discovered and their relation to housing and congestion adjusted.

Regulation of the transportation facilities carried on by public service corporations, the promotion and development of the recently established parcel post system, the establishment of coöperative stores or coöperative purchasing, the encouragement of small farming for household needs, such as the immigrants some times undertake, and other similar well known and tried methods should be adapted and aided.

Reasonable rents. The efforts that have characterized the housing movement in the United States for the last fifteen years were as has already been stated, wholly or almost wholly sanitary. They have added to the cost of construction and in consequence have caused a rise in the rental rates. This means that families are now paying higher rentals regardless of income, and the rise in rentals has caused a lowering of housing standards.

A study of 500 families recently moved from one home to another has clearly shown that in 63 per cent of the cases poorer accommodations were secured because of a recent change in the family income which has caused a necessary change in the amount of rent that could be spared. Social workers and real estate dealers are familiar with the frequent changes of residence among the poorer families and the changes in income which cause this frequency of change of residence.

The rise in rental due to increased regulation and a rise in standards of construction on the one hand and the flexibility of rents due to changes in income, raise a serious and fundamental question as to efficacy of regulation and restriction without some fundamental changes in the economic factors that determine cost and rents.

After a series of studies in over a score of New England communities and a careful examination of the literature on the subject, I venture to summarize the main principles which seem to me to determine cost and rent. These principles are as follows:

1. An increase in the population without a corresponding increase in the housing accommodations of a community determines an increase in rental rates.
2. Rents increase with the increase in the height of buildings.
3. Land values increase with the intensity of land use and intensity of land use increases with the increase in the height of buildings.
4. Rentals per cubic foot of air space increase with the decrease in the size of apartment and the size of apartment decreases with the increase in height of buildings.
5. The taxation of improvements on land and the failure to tax potential land values curtail building enterprise, thereby reducing the supply of homes which results in a rise in rental rates.
6. The strict regulation of new construction without a corresponding increase in the control of old buildings tends to promote the maintenance of old rather than the building of new homes and thereby affects the rentals without a corresponding increase in the quality of accommodations.
7. Accessibility by means of transit facilities or actual proximity to place of employment, amusement and cultural centers etc. when furnished only partially throughout the community tends to increase rentals in direct proportion with accessibility.

These principles are not new. They are the result of common observation and have been repeatedly proven both by economists and students of the housing problem. They have been brought together here so that they may be considered under the general head of housing rather than as mere theories which have a scientific value, but no practical application to the problem before us. Let us consider briefly each of the principles stated above.

1. *Supply and demand.* We have spoken of the spasmodic and vast changes in the population of our cities both in number and in character. It is obvious that an industrial boom which calls hundreds and thousands of workers to a community without at the same time making provisions for their accommodation will create a demand for homes that can be met only by increased congestion and a corresponding rise in rentals.³

So far cities and business concerns have been free to advertize the advantages of specific communities with a view to private gain. That booms and undue efforts to attract population should be controlled is self evident. The task of the housing reformer should be to couple movements for local increase in industrial development and growth in population by fore sight as to the necessary housing facilities required to meet the changes in population.

2. *Rents and Height of buildings.* Professor Eberstadt of Berlin, one of the foremost authorities on housing says: "The higher the building the higher the rent." This same view is taken by another German writer who maintains that with the intensity of land use, of which height is the most important, rentals increase.⁴ My limited experience in New England has led me to the same conclusion. A study of rentals in five Rhode Island cities has shown a constant increase in the rental rates in the sections in which the tallest tenements have developed and where a consequent intensive use of land has taken place.

The importance of this principle is clearly evident. It adds strength to the increasing demand for single dwellings by supplying a purely economic basis to a demand for better sanitary conditions and an increased amount of privacy and comfort. A further working out of this principle upon a broad scientific basis is necessary in determining a constructive policy of housing legislation and the housing reformer would be fully repaid by the results of such undertaking.

3. *Land values and land use.* We have pointed out that intensity of land use increases rentals. The speculation in land values due to an ill fitting system of taxation and the necessity for congestion caused by poor transportation facilities and inadequate community planning are constantly increasing the value of land in the densely settled districts and are thereby affecting the housing cost and rental rates. Professor Eberstadt and his followers consider the rent problem as inseparable from the cost of land and the intensity of land use permitted by law.

In the direction of intensity of land use we have sinned in America to an extent that will take scores of years if not centuries to remedy. We have had our vision obstructed by the New York tenement and have per-

³ See reports on housing conditions in Fall River, and Springfield, Mass. by the writer.

⁴ Prof. Dr. L. Pohle: *Die Wohnungsfrage*, vol. ii, p. 105.

mitted similar land use in some of our smallest communities. This intensive and uncontrolled or partially controlled land use has resulted not only in the most abnormal increase in land values, but has made possible the destruction of some of our most beautiful residential districts where a desire for gain has prompted the construction of high buildings occupying abnormal proportions of the lot area and wholly out of harmony with the rest of the district.

Had we realized with regard to community building what we have long learned relative to fire protection we would have created building zones such as are to be found in most German cities restricting the tall multiple dwelling to sections in which land values would make the construction of single dwellings too costly while at the same time we would have protected the strictly residential section against the abuse which results from intensive land use and unreasonable rental rates.

The "fire zone" is an accomplished and generally accepted fact, why not have a building zone for the protection of health and comfort as well as the esthetic values of the community?

4. *Rents and size of accommodation.* Measurements of apartments taken in nine New England cities—Providence, Springfield, Fall River, Newburyport, New Haven, New Britain, Waterbury, Stamford, Portsmouth have invariably shown that with the increase in the size of the building and the number of families accommodated there is a corresponding decrease in the size of the rooms. The rentals per apartment in the larger buildings are on the average larger than in the smaller buildings accommodating fewer families. There is a fundamental principle involved in this reasoning based on known facts which should not be overlooked. It has an economic value that would appeal to the individual interested in the welfare of the community, and has an application to the present problem of securing comfortable accommodations without placing the burden upon either the builder or the tenant. The full burden would fall upon the land speculator whose share in the upbuilding of communities may profitably be dispensed with.

5. *Taxation of land and improvements.* For the last decade the problem of city and state revenue has been increasingly the subject of study and criticism throughout the United States. We can not at this time consider the merits and demerits of the various systems at present in vogue. All that we need to do is to point out in a general way some of the fallacies of the prevailing methods of taxing housing accommodations as related to taxes upon land. While the principle of taxation for revenue alone is adequate in the case of some commodities, the social requirements of taxation are equity and promotive qualities which will encourage progress and restrict monopoly. In the case under consideration, namely the taxation of housing accommodations we find that it is neither equitable, promotive of progress or restrictive of monopoly. The man who improves

his land by placing upon it buildings that are sanitary, comfortable and beautiful, even if that beauty is due to mere skill in the selection of models and materials, is taxed for the fullest value permitted by law and established by custom. The owner who fails to keep his property in repair, who neglects to make the best of the potential value of his holding, pays a low tax on the basis of a low assessment. The real estate dealer who holds out of use the land which is wanted for building purposes and who compels builders to concentrate structures upon a limited area, pays only a very small share of the taxes. The individual builder of homes is compelled to meet the terms of the land speculator who has full control over the most important commodity necessary for home building. Frequently the land speculator who secures tracts of land on the outskirts of the city sells the land in smaller parcels to smaller land speculators who in turn sell it to still smaller speculators. The man or woman who in the end places the improvement upon the land pays taxes not only upon the improvement placed upon the land, but upon the land which he has improved plus all the profits of three or four and sometimes as many as ten land speculators.⁵ The burden of final cost therefore is placed upon the builder and the return upon this cost must be secured in rents which the tenant pays.

We have known of exemptions from taxation in cases where business blocks are to be erected and in some instances manufacturing establishments have been so encouraged. The building of sanitary homes has always been carried on under the burden of inequitous taxation and land speculation.

The Germans were quick to realize the importance of controlling land that is available for building purposes. They have secured control over large areas which are being sold at reasonable prices to prospective builders, thereby eliminating to a considerable degree the land speculator and securing for the city a revenue in the form of profit on the sale of land which is not burdensome to the purchaser and at the same time assists in meeting the cities' financial obligations.

If the cities of this country were to secure control over the large tracts of land particularly in the outskirts they would eliminate the land speculator and would at the same time be in a position to remove a large share of the burden of taxation from the shoulders of the ultimate builder and tax payer. In controlling such tracts of land a competition between the city and private land owners would be secured that would reduce prices of land and profits on speculation.

We do not propose to solve the problem of taxation in this brief discussion; what we desire to do is simply to suggest a field of inquiry which

⁵ An examination of the tax books of two Rhode Island cities has shown instances of increases in purchasing value of land from 100 to 650 per cent in less than fifteen years.

would unquestionably lead towards more equitable taxation methods and increase the possibilities of proper building without unnecessary and unjust restrictions both public and private.

6. *New and old building laws.* In the earlier part of this article we have discussed the problem of securing adequate regulations to be applied to old buildings. The competitive element that the old and unrestricted building presents against the new building hardly needs emphasis. Where the old buildings are permitted to exist without regulation and under a system of taxation that shifts the burden from the old to the new and improved property it is unavoidable that the number of new structures should be limited and the rentals in the old buildings for which the demand is constantly growing should increase. Unless land cost is reduced by some legislative and administrative means and strict regulations are imposed upon old buildings rentals can not be reduced or controlled as long as a considerable supply of such buildings exists.

7. *Accessibility.* The transit facilities that prevail in many of our cities and towns are so illy adjusted to the needs of the community, and the granting of franchises has been so long the source of private gain that we seldom find proper transportation facilities particularly in the sections of our communities accupied by wage earners. Adequate transit provisions have come to be considered an exceptional privilege rather than a public right and the land owner and house owners are not slow in realizing the market value of such facilities. Only when our transportation system reaches a point where it is considered the right of all rather than the exceptional privilege of a few will rents cease to be affected materially by accessibility to place of employment, amusements etc.

In the foregoing discussion we have endeavored to bring out in a general way the fundamental principles of constructive housing reform. We have gone beyond the generally accepted conception in this field of social service and have pointed out some economic and social aspects of the problem that should and could be met before a scientific and far reaching solution of this most momentous problem could be secured. We are aware of the difficulty that such a broad program would encounter, but we also realize that there is no short cut to permanent improvement, that we have reached a limit in the securing of mere palliatives and that public opinion demands more tangible results than have so far been attained.⁶

⁶ This paper is based upon an address delivered before The Pennsylvania Housing Conference on December 6, 1913.

NEW YORK CITY FINANCES

BY WILLIAM A. PRENDERGAST¹

New York City

SINCE consolidation (January 1, 1898,) the city of New York has been doing things upon a tremendous scale. While it is true that her expenditures in that period have been characterized by some extravagance and a certain degree of corruption, it is also very true that these main outlays have been made in deference to public demand.

In the early part of the history of the greater city this demand came most strongly from those communities which were merged into the city of New York and which prior to that time had not been financially able to give to their people all that modern municipal convenience required; but during later years the cry for great public improvements of all kinds has been general and no one portion of the city can be charged with greater rapacity in this respect than any other.

The extent to which this policy of continuous improvement has been carried is shown by the fact that from January 1, 1898, to June 31, 1911, long term bonds of the city of New York have been issued for the following purposes:

Water supply.....	\$129,923,568
Streets and roads.....	99,111,159
Schools.....	93,517,622
Docks and ferries.....	82,676,225
Bridges.....	78,734,452
Rapid transit railroads.....	73,162,337
Public buildings.....	49,008,909
City parks and places.....	37,578,461
Libraries.....	11,495,400
Fire department.....	6,049,389
Police department.....	3,602,984
Department of health.....	3,216,809
Department of street cleaning.....	3,170,541

These figures refer only to permanent improvements and have nothing whatever to do with the cost of general city maintenance.

The city of New York has a large debt and the size of this indebtedness is sometimes commented upon adversely. The gross funded debt on June 30, 1912, was \$1,082,662,851.75; of this amount the city holds in its own sinking fund, bonds to the aggregate value of \$279,783,560.61. The net funded debt on June 30, 1912 (bonds of the city of New York held by the public), was \$802,879,291.14.

¹ Comptroller of the city of New York.

The expenditures of the city of New York are divided into two classes: Those made under the authority of the tax budget, and corporate stock (or long term bond) authorizations.

The tax budget is prepared and approved by the board of estimate and apportionment and must receive the approval of the aldermen. The aldermen have power to reduce the amount of the items contained in the budget, but cannot increase any. Neither can they alter the character of any appropriation from the form in which it is inserted in the budget by the board of estimate and apportionment. This budget provides for the general maintenance expenses of the city government and also the county departments and courts within its jurisdiction. An illustration of the scope and function of a New York City tax budget is best shown in the following statement of the budget for this year:

GROUPING OF APPROPRIATIONS ACCORDING TO GENERAL FUNCTION OR PURPOSE	GROUP TOTALS	PER CAPITA COST
General administration.....	\$3,042,915.00	\$0.59
Legislative (aldermen and city clerk).....	285,810.00	.06
Judicial.....	8,437,835.26	1.63
Educational.....	36,116,559.31	6.98
Health and sanitation.....	17,076,279.18	3.30
Protection of life and property.....	30,179,314.61	5.83
Correctional purposes.....	1,362,404.00	.26
Charitable purposes.....	8,165,773.38	1.58
Streets, highways and bridges (care and maintenance of).....	5,083,476.84	.98
Recreation, science and art, viz:		
(a) Parks, parkways and drives.....	2,454,853.00	.49
(b) Zoological and botanical gardens, museums, etc.....	1,003,476.57	.19
Public buildings and offices (care and maintenance of).....	1,370,906.63	.27
Board of elections and county canvassers.....	1,208,675.00	.23
Publication, advertising and printing.....	1,353,890.00	.26
Taxes, rents, pension and relief fund, etc.....	6,445,569.20	1.25
Public enterprises (docks and municipal ferries).....	2,960,623.62	.57
Totals.....	\$126,548,361.60	\$24.46
Interest on the city debt and provision for the retirement of its bonds.....	51,254,528.17	9.91
Total cost for maintenance of government, interest and amortization for the year 1912.....	\$177,802,889.77	\$34.37

The total number of employees of the city is approximately 107,000. Of these about 85,000 are regular employees, 22,000 temporary. The temporary employees consist chiefly of election officials, landlords of polling places, and those engaged in the removal of snow to the number of 15,000.

Checks are used to pay about 65,000 of the regular employees, the chief beneficiaries being the teachers, 17,200; policemen, 10,118, and firemen, 4346. The amounts paid by check aggregate about \$75,000,000; those paid in cash, about \$14,000,000. When one appreciates that the item of salaries and wages alone represents an average outlay of seven and a half millions of dollars per month, it is not hard to understand that for many years New York has been one of the greatest borrowers in the world.

Borrowings necessary for these purposes had from consolidation to the middle of the year 1910 been made in the form of revenue bonds—short term evidences of the city's indebtedness. These bonds were issued for periods of from one to twelve months, or for such longer time as the size of the amount to be borrowed and a study of the money market would justify. In the last years of the previous administration the amount of these borrowings had become so large that it was deemed necessary to broaden the market for them by seeking foreign buyers. It was found, however, that owing to the fact that these short term evidences of indebtedness were issued under the name of bonds, that name being applied to them in the charter, they were not acceptable for quick handling, especially in England, because as bonds they were subject to the bond tax of one-half of 1 per cent, whereas, if they could be issued in the nature of bills, they would only be subject to a very small tax of one-twentieth of 1 per cent.

In order to assure the city a broader market I asked the legislature of 1910, the first year of my administration, to give us authority to issue these evidences of indebtedness in the form of bills and payable in the currency of foreign countries. This was promptly done and the city has now an extensive market for her short term obligations, enjoying the advantage not only of a wider field for the placing of these bills, but an opportunity to take advantage of the best rates wherever they may be found.

The question would naturally arise why should New York City put itself in the position of being so heavy a borrower instead of collecting the funds for her current maintenance either in advance of its incurrence, or at least at such periods as would enable her to be a fairly self-supporting concern; "self-supporting" in this sense being used as opposed to the principle of constant borrowing.

The first step that was undertaken in this direction involving the collection of a sum approximately \$130,000,000, was a change in the system of preparing the city's tax bills, it being our idea that if the bills were ready promptly it would lead to payments being made more promptly. To the mind of the average business man the very idea of the city not being ready with its bills promptly would no doubt occasion amazement.

The mere proposition upon my part to prepare all bills in advance naturally aroused great opposition in the office of the receiver of taxes, and not less than fifty objections were urged by so-called experts and mossback

office holders to any such system. My idea was that not only should the tax bills be prepared in advance, so that they would be ready when the taxpayer called for them, but that they should be prepared in duplicate and triplicate form, so that when an application was made for a tax bill, the triplicate or advice showing all the necessary information could be given to the taxpayer. When the payment was made the original would be receipted and handed to the taxpayer and the duplicate used by the auditor of receipts as a check upon the collecting officers. The system had another purpose in that it enabled the department of finance for the first time to exercise a thorough control over the collection of the city's taxes.

The results of the introduction of this system were excellent not only in inducing quicker payments, but in the very much greater convenience to the taxpayers of the city in discharging their tax payments.

Side by side with this change, however, we had in contemplation the more important principle of collecting the city's revenue in time to enable it to pay its bills. After much study and a thorough investigation of the tax systems in force in all the leading cities of this country, I announced at a meeting of the City Club on the night of February 6, 1911, that as the city's financial officer I was in favor of a system of semi-annual tax collections, and would ask the legislature to give me authority to make them in that way. The necessary legislation was secured and this year the plan went into effect. The annual tax is payable in two equal parts, on the first of May and the first of November. Those who desire to pay their entire taxes at one time are at perfect liberty to do so and as an inducement to make full payment, a discount at the rate of 4 per cent per annum is allowed upon the money due on the second half, if paid in advance of November 1, and calculated from the date of payment to November 1.

Total collections, May 1 to and including September 3, 1912...	\$80,456,202.74
Collections representing first half of yearly period.....	63,778,797.48
Collections representing second half of yearly period.....	16,677,405.26

What it means to the city of New York to be in receipt of this great sum of money and not to be compelled to be a borrower marks not only a great advance in the method of conducting city business, but it also means that the city will be the richer this very year by approximately one million and a half dollars, saved in interest charges. The entire extra expense to which the city has been subjected through the introduction of this system has this year been \$50,000, and probably this amount can be reduced in subsequent years, so the gain is not only great in respect to administrative efficiency, but also in actual financial results.

If the city takes the attitude that it is entitled to quick payment of that which is due, it is just as essential that the city should promptly pay its own bills. A government should be just as careful of its credit as

a private individual, and one of the surest means of enjoying good credit is to be prompt in payments. It must be said with regret that heretofore those charged with the care of the city's credit have not seemed to appreciate this fundamental principle, although they probably recognized its force in their private business and transactions. This laxity also brought about a system of petty imposition practised by clerks and others who had the payment of accounts in their charge. There being practically no system under which payments of bills should be made, it was every man's race. Those who were willing to "make arrangements" could get their money in quicker time than those who were out of favor or were not willing to pay for what was their right. One of the first measures of reform which I undertook in the department of finance was to devise a system which would govern the payment of bills.

Every voucher entering the department is put upon a schedule and that schedule must be recognized throughout the entire audit. To pay a voucher out of its order is now an infraction of the rules, unless in very rare cases there be some special reason for taking a bill out of its order. This cannot be done except with the sanction of the comptroller or one of his deputies. This power is so seldom used by them as to insure the absolute integrity of the original system. Instead of its requiring from twenty to thirty days for the payment of bills they are now made on an average of less than five days. This, of course, refers to accounts over which there is no dispute and represents 95 per cent of the accounts passing through the department of finance.

I am not claiming that the city's bills are paid on an average of five days from the time they are incurred. This time refers only to the period required for their transmission and payment through the department of finance. There is not the slightest reason, however, why bills should not be passed in even less time than this through the different departments and bureaus incurring the obligations, and if this were done it would mean that the city of New York could take advantage of the best cash discounts and be in a position thereby to demand the very best prices obtainable. It has not enjoyed any such advantage in the past because of this delay in paying its obligations.

Even within the past year there have been cases in which certain of the city departments have not transmitted accounts to the department of finance inside of three, four, five, six, seven and eight months. This condition, however, is rapidly being improved and ought to be almost entirely obliterated through the operation of the new accounting system and the better treatment of all municipal work, the merit of which is now being generally recognized in city departments.

I have already called attention to the large amounts borrowed by the city through the sale of its corporate stock, or long term bonds, this cover-

ing the other class of city expenditures as differentiated from the outlays made on account of the tax budget.

In 1911, some of the principal expenditures of this character were as follows:

Educational purposes.....	\$5,052,626.80
Health and sanitation.....	1,196,771.25
Water supply.....	30,774,994.86
Streets and highways.....	12,287,760.18
Bridges.....	11,551,974.25
Public buildings and offices.....	3,220,617.93
Docks and ferries.....	2,545,178.82
Rapid transit railroads.....	10,010,526.38

It has been the city's practice to go into the market for its long term bonds at frequent intervals, sometimes three different times a year. This meant that at such periods as the city was greatly in need of money it would find that it was embarrassed because of an unfavorable money market, and the history of recent administrations will show that this embarrassment was on some occasions very costly to the city. At the time I became comptroller there was relatively little corporate stock money on hand, although there had been a sale of \$12,500,000 during the preceding month; but this amount was wholly inadequate to meet what were even then pressing demands, especially for land liability.

I believed that the city would serve its best interests by letting it be known in the financial world that it would not go into the market for long term borrowings more than once a year. With that object in view I asked the commissioners of the sinking fund to confirm my plan of issuing \$50,000,000 worth of corporate stock during the early part of the year 1910. The sale took place on March 21, 1910, and was a great success. The interest rate on these bonds was fixed at $4\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. The second sale was for \$60,000,000 at $4\frac{1}{4}$ per cent and took place on January 24, 1911, and the third sale of my administration was for \$65,000,000 at $4\frac{1}{4}$ per cent and was held on May 7, 1912.

There is no doubt whatever that this policy of yearly sales has the approval of the financial world and is also a great help to the city because it enables the department of finance to select what is generally known to be the most acceptable period of the year for a bond sale. These large sales were open to the criticism that they left a good deal of money on hand in the city treasury and that as the city has to pay $4\frac{1}{4}$ per cent on its money, and only receives on an average of 2 per cent from its deposits, it suffered an unnecessary loss. This criticism was justified in a measure although it must be remembered that the ability of the city to sell its bonds readily and at good prices is a compensating advantage. But under a new system which we have established this criticism is read out of court. It was with

the object of avoiding the carrying of large sums of long term money in the banks, and also of being in a position promptly to pay the obligations incurred by the city under its corporate stock authorizations that we found it necessary to devise a new method in municipal finance.

It might be asked why should the city ever be behind in paying its bills. It must assuredly have large sums of money on hand; for instance, in former times, when a contractor would call for his money and be told that there was none on hand, he would naturally wonder why the city could not pay his bill when he would read from a published report that it had a number of millions of dollars in banks. The point is that possibly none of this money in the banks belonged to the fund from which his account could be paid, although the sanctity of these accounts had been frequently violated and bills which should be paid from corporate stock authorizations had been paid from the tax budget collections, and vice versa. This brought about a chaotic condition in the city treasury and became an embarrassment because it has happened that when it was necessary to replenish a certain fund it was found to be difficult to get the money with which to do it. This was called the general pot theory of mixing all moneys and making payments indiscriminately; but this general pot theory was one of the things that I evicted from the department of finance immediately upon becoming comptroller.

Another difficulty was this: Under the law, although corporate stock had been authorized for a certain improvement and a contract awarded for the work, no payment could legally be made on account of that contract unless bonds specifically covering that particular authorization had been sold. This created much confusion and delay in paying the city's bills but the delay was especially oppressive against the city's creditors for land liability. Where land had been taken for public improvements the condemnation proceedings would drag along for a number of years, and although the claimant would be entitled to interest from the time when title vested in the city, still the city's failure to make payment promptly for these awards created great hardship on a large number of people who were really in need of the money, and unless bonds had been sold covering specific authorizations for these land liabilities, payment could not be made. In 1910 we paid \$15,000,000 for land acquired, and in 1911, \$28,000,000, as against an average of \$10,000,000 for preceding years.

All these different considerations led us to the conclusion that there should be some method provided for paying promptly the city's obligations for permanent improvements, and as a means of meeting this very trying situation we decided, in the year 1911, to ask the legislature to permit us to issue corporate stock notes, these notes to be issued for a term not longer than one year, and to be paid out of the next succeeding bond sale.

The necessary legislation was secured and the consequence is that through

our ability to borrow money for corporate stock purposes on these short term notes, making a considerable saving in interest charges, we are now in a position to make our borrowings whenever necessary and there need not be a single day's delay in the payment of a corporate stock liability. This new device, also very simple, has in conjunction with the semi-annual tax plan practically revolutionized New York's financing and tends to place it upon a basis of absolute business integrity and efficiency.

The corporate stock note also disposes effectually of the necessity of ever reverting to frequent bond issues and confirms the policy of yearly bond sales which I had the honor of introducing.

While discussing some of the lights I deem it well to also call attention to at least one of the shadows because it refers to a subject to which the thought of all those interested in better municipal administration should be directed. On June 30, 1912, the city of New York had an estimated land liability of \$22,943,914.28. Of this amount \$5,236,741.57, or 22.8 per cent represented interest charges. This means that nearly one-quarter of this great sum will have to be paid by the taxpayers of the city of New York because of an antiquated, cumbersome and wasteful method of condemnation proceedings.

The delays take place almost entirely in the work of the condemnation commissions, which is prolonged unduly, and largely, I am assured, because the longer the work can be delayed, the more meetings can be held and the greater will be the remuneration of the commissioners. For the purpose of maintaining and enriching these favorites of the courts, selected generally because of political preference and favoritism, the city of New York must pay this great tribute in interest charges.

In addition to handling current responsibilities, which it is apparent from the figures already given are of great magnitude, this administration has been called upon to adjust many difficult problems left by its predecessors. One of the most trying of its financial difficulties has been the handling of a large indebtedness due to uncollectible taxes. Under the system already explained, the city has been compelled to borrow for its budget requirements, but in cases where the taxes could not be collected, the revenue bonds or bills issued against these deficits constituted a debt that must be taken care of in some other way.

From January 1, 1898, to 1905, there had accumulated \$36,000,000 of uncollectible taxes. This was one of the great problems which the second administration of Mr. McClellan was called upon to face immediately upon going into office. It is the law that the sum of all taxes deemed uncollectible shall be included in the next succeeding annual tax budget and defrayed therefrom. This practice has not been lived up to, largely because of the fear of each administration to face the situation in a manly way and let the people know in the budget exactly what their real condition was and

the responsibilities they had to meet. Shortly after the beginning of the second McClellan administration legislation was secured authorizing the liquidation of this great sum of \$36,000,000 of uncollectible taxes through the issue of long term bonds. The poor business policy of such a proceeding is manifest, and at the same time this deficit had become so great that its inclusion in a single tax budget, or even spreading it over two or three years, would be regarded by the taxpayers as an unnecessary burden. It is simply a question whether a man wants to discharge his indebtedness and be done with it. The same thing occurs to the city, but we find that there are many taxpayers who believe that the longer they can put off the payment of a claim, and thus keep down even to a small degree the amount of taxes they have to pay annually, the better off they are. They do not stop to figure that the city is not better off but that its condition is annually becoming worse.

Although the city of New York had the authority to issue long term bonds to pay this deficit, during the entire preceding administration of four years only \$3,000,000 was used in this way, leaving a balance for this administration of \$33,000,000. In order to rid the city of this burden of \$33,000,000 I concluded that it would be a safe policy to issue corporate stock to the amount of \$5,000,000 per annum. This would, during the present administration, liquidate \$20,000,000 of this amount, and I thought it equitable to spread the balance through the next administration on the theory that as this great deficit represented the accumulations of eight years, it was fair to spread the liquidation of it over about the same period.

This administration has now been in office three years and we have paid off \$15,000,000. The remaining \$5,000,000 will be paid off during the year 1913 and this means that what has been a floating indebtedness is being funded into a long term indebtedness. This situation, however, presents a very stirring object lesson to a municipal government, whether it be large or small. This lesson is that it should endeavor to pay its way as it goes along, and if it finds itself running behind the best thing to do would be to frankly tell its citizens that such is the case and handle the situation in a manly way.

THE VALUATION OF REAL ESTATE FOR TAXATION

BY W. A. SOMERS¹

BEFORE undertaking to describe how land values are ascertained by the Somers System it will be well to consider what "value" is. One of the standard dictionaries says: "Value, the property or aggregate properties of a thing by which it is rendered useful or desirable, or the degree of such property or sum of properties; concrete purchasing power; the specific quantity of another object for which a given object can be exchanged; a price which can be actually obtained; market price.

As a matter of fact, value, the word, is used to indicate an attempt on the part of man to measure and compare his desires.

A man may desire a head covering, and going into a hat shop finds hats and caps varying in price from 50 cents to \$10. His desire may be satisfied with a \$3.50 derby, and he is willing to exchange for it \$3.50 of money received by him as wages. In this transaction he has valued the hat to him at as much or a little more than \$3.50. At the same time he may consider that this hat is worth more than the \$10 hat, and his judgment or measure of value is final and absolute.

The next man may satisfy his desires by the purchase of a 50 cent cap, while the next man may desire a \$10 silk hat and think it worth the price; and these purchases show the individual idea of the comparative value of the different articles. No matter what the article may be, its value to an individual can only be determined by his desire for it, and the only terms in which he can measure this desire is to compare one article with another, and he cannot make this comparison for anyone but himself. This being true it is evident that in the attempt to arrive at a community opinion of value for each one of a number of things, there must be some basis or foundation other than the individual opinions of the people. That is, there must be found or created some expressed community opinion from which specific values can be deduced, and by which such values can be compared and checked before a satisfactory list can be made.

To illustrate: If it were possible to obtain from each individual of the community his opinion of the comparative value of a certain list of articles,

¹ Mr. Somers has had long experience in the assessment of property for the purposes of taxation. In 1891 he was made deputy assessor of St. Paul and Ramsey County, Minnesota, at which time he evolved his method of real estate valuation, which in 1896 was adopted for the assessment of the city of St. Paul. Afterwards Mr. Somers was engaged for some years in the cities of Cleveland, Minneapolis, Chicago and New York in examination and assessment revisions. Upon the completion of his service in Cleveland, Mr. Somers arranged with the Manufacturers' Appraisal Company of that city to operate his system.—EDITOR.

the comparison in all cases to be made with money, and to be based upon his idea of the value of the article without regard to its cost, there is no doubt that in many of the lists some one or more of the articles not being desired by the individual making the list would be marked valueless; and the chances are that each one of the articles listed would be found on some one or more of the lists so marked. Therefore, average values based on individual opinion would not be satisfactory because the opinions would not be based upon the same standards.

One man whose income is obtained by hard labor at \$2 per day would have a very different idea of the value of things compared with money than the man whose income from inherited wealth, without exertion on his part, amounts to \$100 per day. Therefore it is safe to say that it is impossible to deduce a community opinion of the value of things directly from the only true measure of value—individual opinion.

Nevertheless, we do find in market prices a community opinion which limits the value of all things that have or are subject to market prices. That is, an article can never be worth more than the cost of producing it (the price of the article in the open market), and it never can be worth less at any given time than the amount that can be obtained for it.

With the great development of trade and commerce during the last two hundred years, and the almost universal use of gold as a measure of value, there has been created in the minds of the people generally the idea that everything and anything has a certain discoverable value which can be expressed in gold dollars, and this thought has been common with reference to the valuation of land. To find a specific value for each lot is commonly considered a simple problem, requiring only honest care to make a correct assessment of land values.

Now when we realize that the value of anything, even the most common article, is only an individual opinion, and that the only guide to a community opinion as to the value of these common things is market prices, and that city land is not subject to market prices, we have discovered the cause of the difficulty in obtaining satisfactory assessments of city land, and it seems to me that this makes it plain why the assessments of city land for taxation is almost universally condemned as unequal and unjust. The work may be the honest, conscientious opinion of the assessor, but it is open to criticism by every other citizen, each of whom has the same right in his opinion as the assessor; and as it is human nature to express our fault-finding more emphatically than our praise, it is not astonishing that the work of the assessor is condemned.

Exception may be taken to the statement that city land is not subject to market prices, and a few words are necessary in explanation of this statement. Market prices can only exist for exact duplicates. There can be no market price for any one thing which cannot be duplicated. The

market price of wheat is fixed by the bushel; of coal by the ton; and the prices are based on uniformity of quality so that each ton or bushel is exactly like every other ton and bushel.

A city lot cannot be duplicated. It is a certain definite portion of the earth's surface; and while there may be other lots similar in size and shape, they occupy different parts of the earth's surface, and as the predominant value of city land is its usefulness as a site or location, the fact that several lots may be of the same size and shape is no indication that they are of the same value. Therefore there can never be a market price for city lots except to a very limited degree, such as the case of subdividing an undeveloped farm into city lots of uniform size. They may be offered in the first sale at a uniform price, but this uniformity immediately disappears with the first transfer of the property.

As an illustration of the radical difference in value of different locations I find from the tentative land value maps of the city of New York for 1913 that at the point of highest value on lower Broadway a 25-foot lot would be worth half a million dollars; that lots of the same size less than two blocks distant from this point are rated at \$50,000; and taking the high point on Fifth Avenue near Thirty-fourth Street, where an inside 25-foot lot would be valued at \$375,000, within a radius of two blocks there are many lots of the same size which are valued at less than \$100,000, and very many places in all parts of the city where lots of the same size and in the same block will differ in value as three to one.

The fact that market prices are an expression of community opinion of the value of all things used by man that can be moved from place to place—in fact all things except the surface of the earth, land—has caused an impression that the value of city land can be determined from prices as shown by sales. The fallacy of this supposition is demonstrated when we realize that the prices for sales of land are in all cases merely a compromise between the individual opinions of the purchaser and seller, and that each piece of land represents a particular and specific location on the earth's surface, which cannot be duplicated, and which cannot be moved; and therefore its value does not necessarily indicate the value of any other piece in the world.

If every lot in the city were sold each year, there is no doubt that from these sales some averages could be deduced that would fairly represent a community opinion of value, but the fact is that only a very small proportion of city land is sold during a year, and it is very common to find lots or tracts of land that have not been sold for two or three generations.

Although the term "value of land" is in common use, as a matter of fact land has no value of itself. It can only be valuable to man in using it; therefore any statement of the value of a given parcel of land is based entirely upon an estimate of its future usefulness; and this usefulness can-

not be foretold, because it is dependent entirely upon the conditions of the use. Under certain conditions the use of land may be made to produce valuable crops, or if used as a site for residence purposes it may be very useful and very valuable as a shelter or home, and if used as a site for business projects, it may be made to produce very large return as rent.

It is evident that the only list of values that can be absolutely satisfactory to a community would be a list representing the unanimous opinion of the community, which of course is an impossibility. The assessor must therefore undertake to obtain a community expression of some common knowledge so related to the land values that this community expression can be used as the basis for calculating the value of each lot.

This common knowledge is found in that knowledge common to all the people of the community of the relative importance of the streets. The fact that the value of city land is directly comparable with the comparative usefulness of the streets which make it accessible to the trade and life of the city makes this knowledge a reliable and accurate basis for calculating the value of the lots. While this community opinion is not expressed in definite form of price or value, it has been demonstrated that a very clear expression of it can be obtained by comparing the streets one with another on the basis of their frontage values. By assuming as a unit the frontage value per foot of an inside lot 100 feet deep, then starting with the best street and limiting the inquiry to a few blocks, it will prove surprisingly easy to obtain an agreement or consensus of opinion as to the comparative frontage value of these blocks and streets. Then extending the work from this center in all directions, working out along the best street and through streets of less value until the whole city has been covered, a schedule or frontage value map may be established that can be used as a basis for the appraisal of each separate parcel of land in the city. This is the foundation of what is known as the "Somers System of Land Valuation."

The practical construction of this unit value map was one of the serious problems, but within the last two years such maps have been made in more than a dozen cities, and it is proven that when undertaken by competent authority (the assessor) with the idea that the maps shall be used as the basis for taxation, the owners and occupants of city property enter into the work with enthusiasm, and are willing to give all of the assistance necessary. The valuation must be started under some proper authority to secure the attention of the property owners, and must be carefully conducted, the object and use being explained, and it has been found that as soon as the people understand the practicability of this method, they will appreciate the importance of it and realize that not only can they help in preparing a map, but that after the work is completed they will be enabled to form a better judgment as to the uniformity of the valuation.

It is very desirable and almost an absolute necessity that the unit value for 100 feet in depth shall be fixed at what is considered the actual value of an inside lot 100 feet in depth. Any attempt to use a percentage of the actual value will result in confusion and make it impractical to compare one portion of the city with another. To make use of the unit value map, it is necessary to fix definite rules that will apply to all the various sizes, shapes and positions of the individual holdings by which this frontage unit can be converted into the value in dollars of any particular lot.

Experience has demonstrated that the value of about 95 per cent of the lots, or individual holdings can be determined directly from the frontage value units in connection with the other information on the map, that is, size, shape, and accessibility as shown by position with reference to streets and alleys, the influences of accessibility to the community's life, leaving not to exceed 5 per cent of the lots that will require special investigation. At first sight this may appear to indicate a greater uniformity than is generally thought to exist. Because it is so frequently stated that to determine the value of a lot one must make a complete and thorough examination of the lot, and estimate the many conditions that affect this value, it is astonishing to learn that all of the conditions affecting the value of 95 per cent of the lots in the city can be expressed in street value units in connection with the size, shape and position as shown on the map.

However, 95 per cent is a low estimate because the frontage units may be valued to show every change along each street, and will naturally show the effect of any change in any or all of the streets, such as grading, sidewalks, sewers, water, etc. If one block is graded and paved, and the next block is not graded, the value of this difference will show in the value of the unit. If a sewer has been constructed along a part of a block only, there will be two units showing differences in value. If the land on one side of the street is depressed below the street level and the other side is at the street level, there will be two units, one for each side, showing the value of this difference.

A very common thought that each lot is different from every other lot grows out of the fact that in the valuation of a city lot each one values it from his own point of view, thinking only of his use of it, and from each different use there will be a different income, therefore a different value; and this accounts for the great discrepancy that frequently occurs in the valuation of a given tract by different individuals. Even "experts" frequently differ very widely in their valuation of the same lot.

To make use of these community opinion unit values rules must be established by which the specific value of any given lot can be computed. The first rule to be considered is called the curve of value, and is a rule for determining the effect of frontage value at different depths.

For one kind of business, such as a cigar store, the front part of a lot will be very valuable, and the rear part of less value, while for a restaurant the lot should have its front on the street, and at the same time enough space in the rear for the proper conduct of the restaurant business, making the rear part as important and as valuable to the business as the front. The fact is that the different uses to which city land is put results in giving a higher average value to the front portion of the lot, because it can be adapted to more profitable use by a larger number of people, and to a greater variety of uses than the rear portion of the lot, but there is no fixed positive relation.

Having established 100 feet in depth as the fixed unit of quantity—the yardstick—the first investigation was made to ascertain the comparative usefulness of a lot that was only 50 feet in depth, having only one-half the area of the unit depth, and next to ascertain the comparative value of a lot 150 feet in depth.

This investigation was begun in St. Paul, Minnesota, where the business portion of the city is laid out in blocks 300 feet square, divided into 12 lots, each 50 by 150 feet, and as the business developed in the cross streets many of these corner lots lying 150 feet along the street have been joined with the adjoining lot, and divided so as to make lots of 100 feet deep fronting on the cross street. In other cases a corner lot had been used as frontage on a cross street, making a lot only 50 feet deep, thus giving many examples of lots 50 and 100 feet in depth.

It is evident that the front half of a lot is worth more than the rear half, and that an addition of 50 feet to the rear of a 100-foot lot does not increase its value in proportion to the added area. After a careful investigation of many hundreds of lots in actual use, and of many hundreds of sale of lots of different dimensions, it was determined to use as a tentative scale, 70 per cent of the value of the 100-foot unit as representing the value of the first 50 feet of depth and giving 30 per cent of the value of the unit to the rear 50 feet, and considering the third 50 feet as having a value equal to 15 per cent of the 100-foot unit. Plotting these effects upon cross-section paper developed a curve of value, that is a curved line drawn from a zero point to represent the street line through a 50-foot point representing a lot 50 feet in depth, and at an elevation to indicate 70 per cent, then through a 100-foot point at an elevation to indicate 100 per cent, then to the 150-foot point at an elevation to indicate 115 per cent.

This tentative curve was then tested by applying it to many lots in several cities, and by submitting it to the best authorities, and it was determined that for retail business property the first 50 feet absorbed a little more than the tentative curve indicated, and this was changed to 72½ per cent. The curve thus formed has been used and tried in many thousands of cases in many cities, and it is evident that it fairly represents

a general consensus of opinion as to the proportionate value of different depths in retail business property up to 100 feet, and that for residence or wholesale property it and its extensions fairly represents a proportionate value for 75 to 250 feet in depth.

The next rule to be established was the rule for determining the effect of the value on corner lots. It was discovered that very little if any attempt had been made by real estate men to formulate rules to determine the enhanced value of corner lots. The idea was very commonly expressed that a corner lot was more valuable than an inside lot by a percentage varying from 10 to 100 per cent, but without any fixed reason for different percentages. These differences appeared to be individual, and to have been determined in each individual case by an examination of the lot, and while it was evident that the value of a cross street had to an extent controlled this percentage it had been unconscious, and the conclusion had been reached from the actual use of the corner, and not as deduced from the value of the cross street.

It is evident that with the unit maps as a foundation, values of corner lots can be uniformly determined by some combination of the values of the unit on the streets forming the corner; and it was not difficult to compile a set of rules that would give uniform results for lots 50 by 100 feet fronting 50 feet on the best street for any combination of street values.

The next step was to determine the effect where the lots had their longest frontage of 100 feet on the best street instead of 50 feet, and it was realized that the only possible method of formulating rules to cover all cases would be by assuming some convenient limit for corner tables, and then distributing the value of the cross street over this unit lot by definite rules in small areas, so that it can be easily stated for any given dimension or plot lying in any position. This was accomplished by a careful investigation of the recognized effects on standard corner lots 50 by 100 feet, from which was formulated tables to fit all combinations of street values; then a second lot next to and adjoining the corner was worked out with the same range of corner values. The increase of value to this second lot is very slight, if anything, where the cross street is of but little value, and when the cross street is of nearly the same value as the best street then the effect on this second lot will be considerable.

Having worked out the effect on the two lots 50 by 100 feet each gave us 100 feet square as the corner unit, and this was then divided into 100 squares, each 10 feet, and the effect of the cross street values is worked out on each one of these 100 squares, maintaining in all cases the original proportions as found from actual experience in the use of lots.

The existing dimensions of lots in business centers were found to be so irregular that 10-foot squares were found the best division that could be practically used, and it was found for this use more convenient to use a

set of tables rather than scales as originally planned. These tables show the value in dollars of each one of the 100 squares each 10 feet by 10 feet in a unit corner of a 100-foot square, for every combination of street unit values. There are for practical computation use 100 tables in which the best street unit is valued at \$1000 the cross street unit varying in value from zero in Table No. 1 to \$1000 in Table No. 100 by differences of \$10 between each table. This arrangement makes a convenient method for working out the value of any sizes or shapes coming within the 100-foot square on the corner. Practically every corner-value problem can be solved from these \$1000 tables by proportion.

The third rule to be considered was the effect of alleys laid out across or through a block. By alleys are meant thoroughfares running into or through a block, the use of which is practically confined to the occupants of the block. When they are strictly alleys, used exclusively for the benefit of the lots in the block, it is safe to assume that the ground thus used is worth as much as if it was used as a lot. Otherwise it would not be used as an alley, and the alley not being of any use or value to the property outside of the block, and being exempt from taxation, the value of the ground so used must be added to the value of the lots which are benefited by its use as an alley. It is therefore assumed that a proper method for caring for alleys, is first:

To ascertain the value of the ground used as an alley, computed by the rules of frontage and depth. Then to distribute the amount of this value to the several lots in the block which are accessible to the alley in proportion to their accessibility.

There are exceptions to every rule, and cases have been found where the alleys in a block covered so much ground that the value of the land amounted to more than the benefits accruing to the lots as in the case of an alley 20 feet wide through a block where the only use if the alley was as a rear entrance to the lots, and where 10 feet in width would have accommodated the property as well as 20 feet. In such a case it is evident that there is a loss in maintaining a 20-foot alley, and it may be that the amount of benefit to the lot is less than the value of the land so used. When there is more than one alley in the block, or where the widths of the alleys in the block are not uniform, the advantages or benefits to the lots must be adjusted in accordance with the facts.

Alleys benefit lots first by making them accessible to the public thoroughfares; second, by giving them the advantages of unobstructed light in proportion to the width of the alley; third, by insuring the free circulation of air. In all three of these cases any increase in the width of the alley will tend to increase the benefit. Therefore if we have in one part of the block a narrow alley, we should not charge the same rate per front foot as should be charged when the alley is wider. The exercising of a little common

sense in adjusting the value of the different conditions and features will be necessary, and it will not be difficult to work out a satisfactory result.

From the very nature of the case each block must be worked out separately, if there is only one alley, and that is of uniform width running through the block, passing we will say the back end of each lot, and the lots being all of the same width, the case is very simple, as the benefits to the lots must be equal. A division of the total value of the land used for the alley by the number of lots will give a fair proportion of the amount which must be added to the value of each lot.

It is frequently stated that rules cannot be formulated that will take into consideration all of the conditions that effect the value of city lots. While it may be admitted that this is true, it must be admitted that in so far as similar conditions exist their treatment by the use of rules will tend to simplify the work of the appraiser, result in greater uniformity, and greatly facilitate the work of comparison or review. While it is true that there appear to be many conditions that affect the value of a lot, a little thought will demonstrate the fact that when we eliminate those features that affect the same lot differently, depending upon the use that is made of it, or the ideas of the individual having control of it, we find the real forces that give value to city lots are not so complicated. The complication grows out of the fact that cities are not built according to a fixed plan, but grow from a cross-country road, through the village to the city, by the addition of new people, gradually developing from time to time, and that the value of the land increases with the number of people who desire to use it, and the only measure of the value is this desire, which is based upon an estimate of the profit to accrue from the use of the lot.

This may sound radical, and some will say, "Why, I can sell that lot for a certain price at any time." Therefore, that is its value, but this can only be realized when there are a number of people who think that the future use of the lot can be made to produce an income sufficient to pay interest on the sum offered, or more.

EFFICIENCY IN CITY PURCHASING

BY W. RICHMOND SMITH¹

THE one paramount economic issue in the United States today is the necessity for a reduction in the high cost of living to the individual.

While other considerations enter into the solution of the question, the fundamental problem is the reduction of the costs of production by our great commercial and industrial enterprises. This reduction in the costs of production involves many important considerations, but none more vitally necessary than the elimination of waste in overhead carrying charges and in the purchase of raw materials and supplies.

During the past half century this country has revolutionized the industrial map of the world. With the greatest of nature's raw material store-houses at command, the people of the United States have set the world's pace in commercial and industrial development. Every other industrial nation has contributed in knowledge and skill to this wonderful march of progress, because in thus coining the natural resources of the country the United States could afford to pay the highest market price for all kinds of labor. In no other land could the willing and skilful worker reap so great a reward. But during this time the laws of cause and effect were at work creating new conditions. Abundance bred waste. Our great natural resources have been dissipated with a prodigal hand. Vast wealth and high wages have produced a new and higher standard of living. The luxuries of yesterday have become the necessities of today. Unparalleled expansion of profitable production for enormous home and still greater foreign markets compelled our great manufacturing industries to devote their energies to attaining perfection in methods of disposing of their products. There was neither the time nor the urgent necessity for making the same close study of the methods and costs of production. Excessive overhead carrying charges and loose and inefficient systems of purchasing and handling raw materials and supplies came as a natural consequence of enormous yearly increases in production. The steadily increasing cost of raw materials and supplies—due to the gradual depletion of our natural resources combined with the insistent demand of labor of every class for higher wages to meet the increased cost of living—has compelled our captains of industry, during the past few years, to face the problem of new and

¹ Mr. Smith is the expert in charge of the work of commission on standardization connected with the New York department of finance, of which William A. Prendergast, comptroller, is the head. This article should be read in connection with Comptroller Prendergast's article on "New York City Finances" (see NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. ii, p. 221) and Prof. Robert Livingston Schuyler's article on "Centralization in City Purchasing" (see vol. ii, p. 251).

better methods of purchasing and handling raw materials and supplies in order to reduce to a minimum the costs of production.

The first great national industries to feel the urgent need of efficient systems of purchasing and handling supplies were the railway systems of the country. The need was felt in that quarter first because of the enormous annual outlay necessary to supply and equip thousands of miles of railway spread over vast expanses of territory where the lack of efficient system of purchase and distribution meant the waste of millions of dollars annually. Great railway organizers like James J. Hill and the late E. H. Harriman were among the first to realize the importance of efficient systems of supply purchase and distribution for the gigantic industries under their control. Hundreds of thousands of dollars were annually expended in revolutionizing administrative methods to permit the application of the principle of central control over the purchase and distribution of the forty to sixty millions of dollars-worth of supplies annually purchased by these great railway systems. It is less than a dozen years since the first efficient system of supply purchase, distribution and control was created and put into effect by private corporations in this country, and today there is not a railway system of any importance in the United States or Canada which has not applied the essential principles of efficient purchasing in some form to this branch of its activities. The great manufacturing industries were also quick to see that, under the new conditions briefly outlined, perfection in selling methods had to be accompanied by reduction in costs of production in order to profitably market their wares. Efficient systems of purchasing and handling raw materials and supplies that would eliminate waste have gradually assumed an importance which they did not command in the past, but as yet the idea is little more than in its infancy because the problem of efficient purchasing, though based upon definite fundamental principles, differs in essential particulars in the application of those principles to different industries.

The application of efficiency to the purchase and distribution of materials and supplies by municipalities represents perhaps the newest idea in city administration. There is no necessity, with an audience such as this, to dwell upon the urgent need of system and efficiency in city purchasing. In practically all our large cities, and I am afraid in most of our smaller cities as well, the definite relation between the supplies required for the city service and the supplies actually purchased is a question into which comptrollers and accounting officers have not gone very deeply. I have listened to interesting addresses upon the very important subject of city budget making, but I have not heard any plan outlined for determining the amount of supply appropriation on the basis of the supplies required for any particular function of city government, where the amount of the appropriation was measured by the quantities needed and the importance of

the function for which it was intended. Nor have I listened to any well-defined plan for controlling the unit prices paid for supplies purchased under a budget appropriation by measuring those unit prices against the ruling market prices at the time the purchases were made. I have often known, however, of millions of dollars more or less blindly appropriated in city budgets year after year upon requests of city departments unsupported by any intelligent data regarding quantities actually needed, the unit prices proposed to be paid or the importance of the function to be served.

On the other hand I have watched the working of every part of one of the best devised and most efficient systems of supply purchase and distribution created and used by one of the largest railway corporations on the continent. Through the medium of a central purchasing department I have seen eighty million dollars-worth of supplies and materials purchased annually for every requirement or over twelve thousand miles of railway with its sleeping and dining car services, a trans-Atlantic and trans-Pacific steamship line and a string of high-class hotels extending across the entire continent. Every dollar's worth of this tremendous amount of supplies and materials of all kinds is purchased upon standard specifications—under what is known as continuing agreements with selling firms regulating the prices—with a perfect control over quantities and prices upon requisitions before purchase. Through the medium of centrally located storehouses an equally complete control is maintained over storehouse stocks and the distribution after purchase to thousands of delivery points extending across the continent from the Atlantic to the Pacific. By means of the simplest of forms requisitions are made and filled with amazing promptness, largely because one of the aims of the system is to keep a three months' stock of supplies and materials in greatest demand on hand in the central storehouses all the time. Every form is designed, in addition to contributing to the permanent record, to secure the closest kind of control reports over the quantity and cost of supplies and materials for each function of the different branches of the company's enormous enterprise.

While the fundamental principles underlying a system of purchase and distribution such as I have described are essential to every efficient system, the extent to which and the methods by which those principles can be applied to city purchasing depends in a very large measure upon the character of the legal restrictions which define every administrative function of our cities. The board of directors of a railway company or a private commercial corporation can at will revolutionize every administrative method and introduce in place thereof an entirely new and different system in order to secure a maximum of results. Any suggested improvement in a city's methods of doing business must be worked out within the limits of restrictive laws, unless a sufficiently strong case can be presented to secure legal sanction to further freedom of action. For this reason, even if there were no other,

the introduction of modern methods and systematic efficiency into city supply purchasing is a problem which each individual municipality must work out for itself. The results in each case will depend upon the intelligence with which the task is undertaken, and the extent to which actual concrete results secured within a limited field of action are successful in securing the gradual removal of restrictive legislation which prevents further action and the securing of still greater results.

I do not know that I can illustrate what I mean in any more convincing manner than by endeavoring to summarize, in as few words as possible, the lines along which the administration of the city of New York is working to create an efficient system of purchasing supplies and materials required by the various departments of the city government. When the present administration of the city of New York assumed office at the beginning of 1910, a small committee of the governing body of the city was appointed to determine as far as possible the character and probable amount of each class of materials and supplies annually purchased by the city and to formulate specifications under which such materials and supplies might be most advantageously purchased. The committee was directed to report to the governing body from time to time such standard specifications as were prepared in order that the same might be approved for general use by all city departments. As a general direction the committee was instructed to consider first the standardization of specifications for the purchase of materials and supplies which were purchased by the city in the largest quantities. In the city budget for the same year a clause was inserted providing that in so far as possible all contracts and open market orders for the purchase of materials and supplies should be based upon such standard specifications as might be promulgated, and the comptroller of the city was instructed in certifying as to the sufficiency of the appropriation out of which such supply payments were to be made, also to certify that the specifications used in such proposed purchases were standard specifications in all cases where such specifications had at the time been promulgated.

The actual work of determining as far as possible the character and amount of each class of materials and supplies annually purchased and of preparing standard specifications under which such materials and supplies could be most advantageously purchased was entrusted to a small sub-committee, which has since come to be known as the commission on standardization, working under the direction and authority vested in the committee appointed by the governing body of the city.

Some idea of the magnitude of the task undertaken can be had from the fact that the city of New York expends annually some \$22,000,000 upon materials and supplies purchased through one hundred or more purchasing officials for the various departments, boards, bureaus and commission under the city government. Here was a condition at the very outset which inter-

ferred with the putting into effect of one of the fundamental principles in existing efficient purchasing systems that have produced results elsewhere. Under the provisions of the charter and the laws governing the administrative functions of the city the power to purchase materials and supplies was vested in the heads of the various departments, and those officials were likewise directly responsible for the character and cost of all materials and supplies purchased by them. It was therefore impossible to apply to any improved system of city supply purchase the very important fundamental principle of the centralization of purchasing power, a principle regarded as essential to efficiency in the best existing systems created by private commercial corporations. It also rendered difficult, if not actually impossible, the centralization of distribution after purchase, and made the problem of control over both purchase and distribution far more difficult to solve satisfactorily than the same problem in systems where such centralization could be immediately adopted and put into effect.

The amount of work involved in getting at definite information showing the volume and range of the city's annual supply purchases, and the unit cost and conditions under which such purchases were made was obviously prodigious. It was found that no two of the hundred or more different purchasing departments used the same methods. There was also the amazing lack of uniformity in the character and completeness of the records maintained by the different departments. But intelligent standardization could not be successfully accomplished under the existing conditions without the most complete information, and that information could only be accurately had by tabulating and classifying for a given year the essential details of purchases contained in thousands of contracts and many hundreds of thousands of payment vouchers on file in the comptroller's offices. It has taken the commission on standardization almost two years to complete the colossal task, but the work is now almost finished. With the information thus laboriously secured the commission has been able to work out the following tentative general classification of materials and supplies purchased by the city at a cost of approximately \$22,000,000 annually by more than one hundred purchasing departments:

TENTATIVE GENERAL CLASSIFICATION OF SUPPLIES PURCHASED BY THE CITY
OF NEW YORK

1. Apparatus (laboratory, etc.).
2. Arms and supplies, ammunition and explosives.
3. Athletic goods (including games, toys, etc.).
4. Books, publications, etc.
5. Cleaning materials and compounds.
6. Cleaners' machines and supplies.
7. Clothing, etc.
8. Cordage, rope and oakum.

9. Drafting and engineering tools, instruments and supplies.
10. Drugs, chemicals, etc.
11. Dry goods, notions, etc.
12. Electrical fixtures and supplies.
13. Fire apparatus and appliances.
14. Food products.
15. Forage (including all food for animals).
16. Fuel (including fuel oils).
17. Furniture and furnishings (including kitchen supplies and utensils).
18. Hardware (not otherwise classified).
19. Hospital supplies and surgical instruments.
20. Iron, steel, and other metals (including castings).
21. Leather, saddlery, belting, hose and hose fittings.
22. Live stock (including horses and all other animals) and laboratory specimens.
23. Machinery and parts (not otherwise classified).
24. Materials of construction (including lumber, timber and building material).
25. Materials for manufacture of prison goods.
26. Miscellaneous.
27. Nails, bolts, nuts, washers, rivets and screws.
28. Nautical supplies (including boats and equipment).
29. Office equipment (other than furniture), supplies and stationery.
30. Oils (lubricating and illuminating), greases and all lubricants.
31. Paints, oils, varnishes and painters' supplies.
32. Pipe, valves and pipe fittings.
33. Photographic materials and supplies.
34. Plumbers', steam fitters' and machinists' supplies.
35. Printed, lithographed, engraved and bound books and forms.
36. Rubber goods (not otherwise classified).
37. Stable equipment and supplies.
38. School supplies (not otherwise classified).
39. Seeds, plants, shrubs, trees, etc.
40. Tools and implements.
41. Vehicles (including automobiles, trucks, wagons, carts, carriages, bicycles and motorcycles).
42. Wire rope and wire.

There is also in course of preparation an alphabetical list of every article of materials or supplies purchased by the city listed under these forty-two general classes. This alphabetical list contains hundreds of articles of both materials and supplies which are used for practically the same purposes. It also contains any number of articles which cannot be found in any trade catalogue because they have been manufactured specially for the city. Supporting the general classification and the alphabetical list of articles of materials and supplies are schedules giving the gross quantities of each article in each general class purchased by every department in the city and showing the unit cost and conditions of purchase in every case. Summarized schedules carry the average unit price paid for each article

in each class for every city department, and show the percentage purchased upon publicly awarded contracts and the percentage purchased upon what is known as open market orders without competition. The information contained in these schedules is the basis for standardizing specifications, and the general classification affords a means of handling the otherwise unwieldy mass of information in orderly sequence as far as possible according to the different functions for the use of which supplies are purchased. In addition this systematic marshalling of the essential information effectively discloses practically every abuse which has crept into the existing methods of supply purchase in every city department, and makes it possible to get at, actually and concretely, the resultant waste, and worse, due to over one hundred different loose and inefficient methods. A single example will illustrate what I mean: The city charter permits departmental heads to make emergency supply purchases up to the value of \$1000 upon requisition without competition, all purchases of a greater amount being made by public letting and contract. The schedules disclosed that nearly 30 per cent of the gross amount paid out annually for materials and supplies is expended upon open market order purchases at unit prices averaging almost 25 per cent increase over the average unit price paid for the same supplies when purchased upon contract.

This is the first and by all means the most important step taken by the commission in laying the basis for the creation of an efficient system of city supply purchasing upon standard specifications. No great railway or other private corporation would attempt the solution of the problem in this roundabout way. Their methods would be much more direct. A new system carefully planned to meet all requirements would be devised and immediately installed to replace the old and inefficient system. Administrative and other restrictions which might interfere would be at once swept away, and the new method, with every essential principle that could make for efficiency, would be used in place of the old and discarded machine. No such direct and complete method is possible in the case of a municipal corporation. The reform must be made gradually within the limits of legal restrictions until a sufficiently strong case can be presented to demonstrate the necessity for a wider field of action. The changing of the administrative machinery of a municipal corporation to permit of the introduction of new and better methods must always be a much more serious and difficult undertaking than the changing of the administrative machinery of any private corporation for the same purpose. Too much emphasis cannot be placed upon the urgent necessity for the systematic marshalling of essential information showing the weakness of existing systems to demonstrate the necessity for changes in administrative methods essential to the working out of an efficient plan.

As a result of the work done during the past two years the city of New

York is in possession of all the information necessary to intelligently prepare exact specifications covering the entire field of its material and supply purchases and standardize those specifications for use in every department of the city government. It is in possession of accurate data demonstrating the necessity for uniform methods of purchase, distribution and accounting control of its supply requirements. It has also the necessary information to carefully weigh the advantages for and against the creation of a central department for the purchase, distribution and control of the materials and supplies required by all city departments.

Concurrently with the work of compiling the records of supply purchases the commission on standardization proceeded with the formulation of standard specifications for such supplies, the basic data regarding which was most readily obtainable and for which the city annually expended the largest amount of money. Fuel, forage, horses, and food products were the general classes first taken up. The annual expenditure under these classes aggregated something over \$6,000,000.

Coal. The city's annual coal bill is in excess of \$2,500,000. In the past each purchasing department prepared its own specifications. The result was every conceivable kind of more or less loosely drawn specifications in most of which there was absolutely no quality standard either set up or insisted upon. One of the largest coal using departments in the city purchased its supply upon what is known as the "coal area basis," that is, the specifications required that coal delivered should come from certain well-known mines in certain coal areas. These specifications might have worked well, but the city charter has a provision that in all specifications for the purchase of any kind of supplies, when an article or commodity is specifically named or described, the words "or equal thereto" shall be inserted. This meant that a coal contractor bidding under the specifications framed on the coal area basis could deliver any kind of coal he liked, and the burden of proof rested upon the city to prove that the coal delivered was not equal in quality to that demanded in the specifications.

The city now purchases heat, not coal, under standard specifications upon what is known as the heat unit basis, under which the coal delivered is paid for in exact proportion as it comes up to a fixed standard of physical requirements as determined by chemical analysis of samples taken from deliveries. The new specifications have worked well and the city today is getting a better quality of coal than ever before, moreover, it is getting it at a slight reduction in the actual cost.

Forage. The city employs year in and year out some 5261 horses and its annual bill for forage approximates \$1,000,000. For a dozen years forage contracts specified, and the city paid for, the delivery of "No. 1 white clipped oats"—one of the highest and most expensive grades of oats in the market.

In framing standard specifications for forage the commission discovered that the grade of oats known as "No. 1 white clipped" did not come into the New York market at all, and that all the quality gradings for forage sold departments were virtually made by the contracting firms supplying the city. The new standard specifications called for "No. 2 white clipped oats" as officially graded by the New York Produce Exchange. It was then discovered that the same contractors, who for years previous had been able to deliver what they represented to be "No. 1 white clipped oats" the year around, found themselves unable to deliver under the new specifications the lower and cheaper grade of oats known as "No. 2 white clipped" during certain seasons, and it was found necessary to call for the still lower and cheaper grade known as "standard oats" during those seasons. Under the standard specifications the city is now saving many thousands a year and is getting what it pays for, because it insists upon having the official gradings of the New York Produce Exchange as to quality, instead of allowing individual contractors to make their own quality grades for deliveries to city departments.

Horses. The city owned and had in use at the end of 1909 5261 horses of various classes valued at approximately \$1,762,435, an average cost of \$335 per horse. There were purchased in 1910 1110 horses at a cost of \$364,760.50, an average price of \$328.61 per horse. There was received for 328 horses condemned and sold during the same year \$26,911.30, an average price of \$82.05 per horse, so that the actual cost of renewals to the horse establishment during the year was \$337,649.20.

In former years each city department which required horses had its own specifications. The result was some twenty-five different sets of specifications, each differing from the other in essential particulars. For instance, the trial period in one department was fifteen days; in another the trial period was twenty days, and in practically all the other departments the trial period was thirty days. Requirements as to weight, size and age were different in practically every department, even when the same class of horse was specified for practically the same kind of work. Many of the specifications were loosely drawn and left important questions, which should have been settled in the agreement of purchase, to the judgment of departmental officials, with the results that disputes very often tied up large payments for many months, with consequent increase in bid prices and a restriction of competition. Others contained special requirements which, not only restricted the market for selection, but had the effect of unduly increasing the cost of the animals purchased under them.

Today every city department is purchasing horses under standard specifications with a universal ten-day trial period, and a uniform classification of the age, weight, sex and size of horses to be purchased for different purposes.

Food products. The city uses annually in its various hospitals, charitable institutions and prisons approximately \$1,600,000-worth of all kinds of food products. These purchases are practically all made through four large city departments. In formulating standard specifications for the purchase of the hundreds of different commodities included under the general classification of food products—a great many of them bought under contracts calling for daily deliveries—the commission was compelled to secure uniformity of methods and conditions of purchase before it was possible to promulgate standard specifications. After long delays the difficulties were gradually removed and today the city is purchasing every dollar's worth of food products under exact standard specifications in which the quality, weight and definite character of the product is clearly stated. Where it has been found necessary to use samples as quality measuring mediums the samples set up for that purpose have been carefully standardized and are in use by every city department. It would take too long in an address of this character to go into details of the methods used and the character of the specifications prepared and put into effect covering the many classes of supplies included under the general class head of food products. I have with me, however, copies of the schedules used as a basis for the work of standardization, and will be very glad to go further into the methods pursued and the results accomplished with any who are interested.

Methods of Standardizing. Briefly stated the process of formulating standard specifications involves:

1. The tabulation and analysis of the quantities and cost of commodities purchased by city departments with the conditions under which they were bought.
2. The preparation by a sub-committee of the commission, with this detailed information in its possession, of tentative specifications which are submitted to technical and trade experts for criticism.
3. The submission of these tentative specifications, after they have been revised, to a conference of the members of the commission and the purchasing officials of every city department authorized to purchase the class of supplies therein called for.
4. The submission to each member of the governing body of the city, in the shape of a report recommending their adoption for general use, the specifications thus prepared well in advance of the time when that body is requested to act upon the report for adoption.

Standard form of contract. More than a year ago the commission prepared standard forms for all supply contracts. After a year's use these forms have been perfected from the experience gained from actual use. Today the forms are as nearly perfect as city contract forms can be made and make for economy in printing, uniformity in method and a tremendous saving in time. Intending bidders and departmental officials, knowing

that the principle of uniformity exists, are not compelled always to analyze carefully each new contract. The city's law officers approve as to form speedily, and the city is protected against the results of the possible insertion by different departments of special clauses which are likely to lead to litigation and resultant costs.

Standard testing laboratory. The promulgation of exact specifications for the purchase of materials and supplies demonstrated at the very outset the urgent need of exact methods of determining the quality of deliveries. The adoption of heat unit specifications for the purchase of coal carried with it the necessity of submitting samples from every delivery to exact chemical analysis. The standard testing laboratory was created to supply this need with the understanding that its staff and equipment should be increased to meet demands for exact analysis of every kind of materials and supplies. Some idea of the extent to which this element in city purchasing is a vitally important factor can be had from the facts contained in the first report of the director of the standard testing laboratory for the first six months the laboratory was in operation. This report shows that out of 551 samples of some 70 different kinds of materials and supplies, submitted to chemical and physical analysis, 162 samples, or almost 30 per cent failed to comply with the specifications under which they were purchased.

Conclusion. What the city of New York has begun in the way of securing efficient city purchasing it can complete if it so desires. What New York can do in this direction any other city in the country can do, the great majority much more quickly, and with a certainty of securing results in both efficiency and economy within the life of a single administration. The main consideration, in my opinion, is to start right with the fullest and most complete knowledge of the inadequacy of existing methods, and then proceed along well-thought-out lines to put into effect the fundamental principles which have produced the greatest measure of efficiency in the best of existing systems now in use by private commercial corporations. The rapidity with which progress will follow well directed effort in most of our cities depends, in a very large measure, upon the extent to which charter and other legal restrictions may interfere with the process of applying the underlying principles which have already produced the greatest measure of efficiency in the systems of our large private corporations. In this respect the problem is one which must be solved by each individual municipality. Some of our cities will be able to overcome the obstacles in the way of progress more quickly and effectively than others, but in no case is progress along right lines impossible, and in no single instance can such progress fail to produce actual concrete results that will quickly find favor with the best elements in any electorate.

Efficiency in the purchasing and handling of materials and supplies is a

problem which is today commanding a very large share of public attention for reasons which I have tried to briefly outline at the beginning of this address. There never has been a time in the history of our cities when intelligent efforts command more thoughtful public attention, and no time when the success of such efforts secures so large a measure of public approbation. There is a universal call for efficiency in this direction, and wise city administrations will see in that call an opportunity to introduce sound principles of efficiency into, not only the purchase and distribution of materials and supplies, but into many other important functions of city government.

Standardization of specifications for the purchase of supplies involves the application of practically the same principles and the utilization of precisely the same methods as are required in the standardization of salaries and grades. The creation of an efficient system of supply distribution requires the application of almost the same principles and the use of similar methods to those which will produce the best results in the efficient distribution of the energies of well trained and adequately paid municipal employees. The development of an efficient system of control over the purchase and distribution of materials and supplies means the application of the same principles and the use of closely similar methods to the development of an efficient system of control, over services of every-kind rendered to a municipality, over the appropriation contained in the annual expense budget, and generally over the conduct of its every function.

In securing efficiency in city purchasing, therefore, by the application of the fundamental principles and the use of like methods to those employed in the creation of similar efficient systems by the great commercial corporations of this country, our municipalities are laying the basis for the creation of other systems, applicable to every important function of city government, embodying the highest standard of efficiency known to the world.

SHORT ARTICLES

CENTRALIZATION IN CITY PURCHASING¹

THAT the public business cannot be carried on with the same intelligence, system and efficiency as private business is a theory the acceptance of which has caused many respectable citizens to view as a matter of course, or at least to tolerate as inevitable methods employed by government which, if applied in private business, they would regard as evidence of incapacity or dishonesty. It is a leading purpose of the National Municipal League and the bureaus of municipal research to destroy this theory and forward the adoption by American cities of business-like, up-to-date and efficient methods. Not very much is gained, it has been learned, by turning out "grafters" and electing "reformers," if the latter, however anxious for "civic betterment," allow the old slipshod methods, on which the grafters have fattened, to continue. The movement for municipal reform is doing its mightiest work in teaching us that government is an enterprise to all the people, the success of which requires public enlightenment, investigation and experiment.

The purchasing of supplies is obviously an essential function of the city government, which demands honesty and efficiency in the interests of all. Inefficient or dishonest purchasing evidently affects every taxpayer. Shall the purchases be made by the several departments of the city or by a single agency or bureau?

In those municipalities where no central purchasing bureau has been established the heads of departments or commissioners are called upon to conduct the purchasing of the city. The commissioner or subordinates in his office are thus diverted from the work of which they have expert knowledge and required to perform work of which they have no such knowledge. The head of the fire department is not likely to be an authority on soap, which he must buy in large quantities, it may be. Departmental purchasing means to a great extent purchasing by amateurs and violates the great principle of modern science and business, specialization and the differentiation of function. Departmental purchasing, further, means small-scale purchasing which means high prices and makes the city's orders unattractive to wholesalers. Certain articles are required by several departments. It is clearly in the interest of the community that they should be ordered in large quantities and at low prices. Departmental purchasing, moreover, makes uniformity in standard impossible. Stephen W.

¹ See article on "Efficiency in City Purchasing" by W. Richmond Smith, NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. ii, p. 239.

McGrath, purchasing agent for Cincinnati, in a speech delivered in April, 1912, reported such lack of uniformity in standard as these before the advent of the reform administration: 43 kinds of soap in 52 orders, 21 kinds of ink in 20 orders! Lack of standardization means looseness of specification and impossibility of testing deliveries with precision. Departmental purchasing in addition means lack of uniformity in orders and contracts which may cause serious embarrassment to the city, and lack of *concentrated responsibility* for quality and price. If the city is purchasing inferior stationery at exorbitant price no individual is especially responsible. Against these manifold disadvantages of decentralized purchasing it is believed that no compensating advantages worthy of mention can be brought.²

Cincinnati under the present reform administration has instituted noteworthy improvements in its methods of purchasing, following to a great extent the recommendations of the Cincinnati bureau of municipal research. All the city's purchases are now made through a central agency. On taking charge of the purchasing department in January, 1912, Mr. McGrath found a veritable reign of chaos. Each department was buying its own supplies in small quantities and at retail prices. In common articles in use by all departments there was the utmost diversity of standard. The introduction of efficient inspection methods revealed the fact that the city had been systematically cheated by fraudulent contractors. The work of standardization was at once taken up with energy. In an address delivered before the City Club of Cincinnati on April, 1912, only three months after the new administration had come into office, Mr. McGrath was able to report that material progress had been made. All stationery and office supplies of all kinds had been standardized, and were being bought in large quantities at greatly reduced prices. In the single item of pencils the new method of buying meant a reduction in price to the city from \$4.60 to \$2.20 per gross. On the purchase of soap a saving to the city of 25 per cent had been made. The process of standardization involved the drawing of precise specifications on the basis of a tabulation and analysis of the quantities and cost of articles purchased by the departments in the past. After a conference and agreement between the purchasing agent and the departmental officials concerned these specifications were adopted as the standard. In buying standard articles in large quantities the "continuing agreement" was found advantageous in protecting the city from increases of price without depriving it of the advantages of a falling market. As a result of exact specifications and continuing agreements, terminable on reasonable notice, no time is now lost in asking for bids from contractors or in finding out what quality the department concerned desires. It was

² The advantages of centralized purchasing are clearly set forth by Henry Bruère, in his recent work on *The New City Government*, ch. viii.

found that there was great need of an efficient system of inspecting purchases. A certain vendor, proved to be guilty of furnishing material in grossly deficient quantity, declared that the reformers were getting "entirely too d—n smart," that he had been supplying the city for years and that no complaint had ever been made before! Until the new administration took office the city never enjoyed the customary discount for cash. At present the great majority of its orders are subject to this discount. On the basis of a three-months' experiment in efficiency Mr. McGrath felt justified in predicting that, when the process of standardization had been carried somewhat farther, the city would be saving 10 per cent on its purchases, or about \$150,000 a year.

• Fort Worth, one of the most progressive of our commission governed cities has adopted an efficient plan for city purchasing. A purchasing agent, at a salary of \$1800 makes purchases for all departments. Requisitions are made upon the purchasing agent by the division heads in the several departments and, if approved by the commissioner concerned, are sent to his office. As a record a copy of the requisition is kept by the department making it. Invitations for bids are then sent by the purchasing agent to wholesalers and retailers; nearly all the city's purchases are made at wholesale prices. The orders are made in triplicate, one copy going to the successful bidder, one to the department making the requisition and the third retained by the purchasing agent. When supplies are delivered they are checked against the copy of the order in the department which made the requisition, which is then forwarded to the purchasing agent, on the basis of which he certifies the invoices, which are then sent to the auditor for approval and payment.

Under the present administration remarkable progress has been made in Philadelphia in putting the city purchasing on a business-like basis. During the mayoralty campaign of 1911 the bureau of municipal research submitted to the candidates a series of proposals. Under the caption "Some opportunities open to Philadelphia's next mayor" were the following suggestions:

Establish exact standards and specifications for supplies and materials to be purchased so that the city's agents and the public alike may know just what has been or is to be bought, at what advantage or disadvantage to the city.

Require that the department of supplies be organized and conducted as a highly efficient modern business enterprise, giving to the city the benefit of central buying; to departments the benefit of prompt action; and to dealers the benefit of prompt settlement and business-like treatment in the city's purchase of \$3,000,000 of supplies annually.

Secure independent inspection, by a properly equipped bureau under the city controller, of materials and supplies furnished to the city; of service rendered; and of construction work in progress.

The department of supplies under the direction of Herman Loeb is being administered in a manner in keeping with these suggestions. In the first place a business-like system of bookkeeping has been adopted in the making of requisitions, placing of orders and payment of bills. A thorough inspection of supplies delivered has been instituted. Samples of the goods delivered are compared by the inspectors with the specifications, and here use is made of the city's chemical laboratory. Mr. Loeb has further advocated the establishment of a general warehouse, where standard supplies can be stored in large quantities and whence they can be distributed as needed. This would make possible purchases on a larger scale, at lower prices, and would insure prompt delivery of supplies to the departments.

Both in the drawing of precise specifications, which is necessary to safeguard the city's interests, and in the effective testing of supplies furnished to the city, New York has been a pioneer. The testing laboratory conducted by the city is now used for the drawing of specifications for \$20,000-000 worth of purchases annually. It is also used in cases of dispute between the department and the contractor, to test deliveries. Especially in the important item of coal scientific specifications and the application of chemical tests to supplies delivered has saved large amounts to the city. The adequate provision made for the standard testing laboratory in the new municipal building shows that the importance of this work is fully appreciated in New York City. Municipal testing laboratories have existed for many years in the larger cities of Europe, but they are in their infancy in the United States. It is clear that efficient testing depends on precise specifications which are greatly facilitated by centralization in purchasing.

Departmental purchasing, a heritage of days when our cities were mere overgrown towns, continues in our municipalities as a result of inertia. Wherever centralized purchasing has been given a trial it has demonstrated its superiority to the old method, which is seen to be inefficient because wasteful, inexpert, and irresponsible. Centralized purchasing is an essential part of the efficiency movement in municipal affairs.

ROBERT LIVINGSTON SCHUYLER.³

³ Assistant professor of history in Columbia University and a member of the board of editors of the *Political Science Quarterly*.

THE PUBLIC LIBRARY IN COMMISSION-
GOVERNED CITIES

FEW OF those who advocate the commission plan of city government would say that the last word had been uttered as to the best method of adjusting the various departments under this plan of government, or that the classification of the many interests of a municipality under the existing departments is wholly satisfactory. The scant consideration that is given the educational function of the municipality, in connection with municipal government by a commission is surprising when we consider the wide discussion that has been given to the general subject throughout the country. The enlarging group of educational agencies that have developed in the past few years outside the school-room, including museums, public libraries, art galleries, free lectures and amusement or recreation halls, calls for fuller consideration in connection with the attempt to define and classify the many interests of the city, as some of these are already recognized as having a large place in the activities of a municipality.

The early promoters of the commission plan apparently did not realize that it might properly include educational interests—not only the public schools, but so called minor educational interests—many of them as vital and as far reaching in their influence as the schools. Sufficient time has now elapsed to reveal some of the handicaps that have been placed upon public libraries under the commission plan by the attempt to classify them in unrelated departments of the city—departments pertaining entirely to material affairs. Clearly the early plans for such a form of government did not contemplate the unrelated and irrelevant grouping of these educational interests such as has developed. Those who have first-hand knowledge of the commission plan are not inclined to condemn it because of certain weaknesses or omissions, when the admirable work which has been done in rescuing cities from the perils of ward politics is so evident; but surely it becomes imperative that readjustment of some sort should be made, to correct the obvious omissions which experience has revealed.

Those who are engaged in public library work and have had opportunities for direct observation in connection with libraries in commission governed cities, are convinced that a continuation of the present method of classifying public libraries in departments entirely unrelated and sometimes unsympathetic, is a serious mistake that should be corrected now that conditions are recognized. The classification of the public library under existing departments,—such as parks, finance, or, public safety,—is illogical and arbitrary; and it is timely to consider the vital question of the relation of popular education to the municipal government.

Some who have written on the subject have urged that there be a commissioner of education as one of the elected officers, who shall have the supervision of the various educational and semi-educational interests. This seems logical, but carried with this suggestion must necessarily be the insistence that each commissioner shall be elected for a specific department, rather than elected as commissioners at large with the assignment made after the election. A "hit or miss" selection of a commissioner of education out of the group of commissioners elected, would be a very uncertain and unwise method of selection for so important a department. Hence, in any discussion of the question of a department of education there must necessarily be the assumption that the commissioners are to be elected for specific departments; and this is a point regarding which there is wide difference of opinion.

Granted that a commissioner of education should be one of the governing board of the city—how shall these special and intricate interests be dealt with by one man? It is reasonable that there should be a departure from the "one man" idea of the commission plan here, because of the unusual problems involved in education. If the schools shall be included as well as the other agencies for popular education named above, the problem is indeed a large and difficult one. If, however, the effort is in line with the trend toward a unit of taxation, it would seem logical that the schools should be included in such a plan; certainly no one would question the necessity of an advisory school board, of which the commissioner of education would be the ex-officio chairman, and such board would elect the superintendent of schools and be especially responsible for the selection of teachers and the educational side of the problem, the commissioner giving personal attention to the finances, buildings, etc., in addition to his general duties as a commissioner.

The chief concern of this article is the public library. Assuming for the present, that education is recognized as a part of the municipal responsibility, and that all classes and ages should have equality of educational opportunity outside the class room, the same reason would apply for an advisory library board, as for a school board, with the commissioner of education ex-officio chairman. This board would deal with the questions of library supervision and extension, the election of the librarian and staff, the selection of books and other matters which are of a sufficiently special nature to call for more careful attention and fuller information than could be expected of one man, a large part of whose time would necessarily be given to the general interests of the city, as well as those of his own department.

Provision is made in the commission plan law, as adopted in some of the middle-west states, for the appointment of three library trustees, among other officers to be selected by the council at its first regular meeting

after election; but the law also states that "the council and its members shall exercise all executive, legislative and judicial powers and duties now had, possessed and exercised" by the usual city officers, which are enumerated, including the board of library trustees; hence the powers of such a board are reduced to a minimum, unless by legal opinion, the powers given under the general library law of the state are authorized. Furthermore the indefiniteness of the law as to the total number of library trustees and their powers, clearly indicates that the place of the public library in the general plan was not fully recognized by those who formulated the law.

The responsibility of a municipality for the education and wholesome recreation of those who are entirely outside the school and the class-room is rapidly becoming recognized. The field of the public library is large enough to reach every inhabitant of the city or town with the free use of books for both inspiration and information. No municipality can disregard the fact that well-informed citizens are a safe-guard and source of strength to the community, and that the dissemination of general intelligence is a necessity. An institution for popular education such as the public library, which shall stimulate the study of public questions and make accessible literature on all subjects of municipal interest, is entitled to cordial and helpful recognition.

If, however, those who are students of the commission plan of municipal government doubt the wisdom of creating a department of education, then there seems no logical place for the public library, or, for education, as an integral part of the commission plan as at present constituted.

Another phase of the matter, which should not be overlooked, is the question of civil service as applied to the public library. Civil service, while not an inherent part of the commission plan is usually incorporated into it, and the merit system is one which is surely not to be questioned in this connection. The public library, however, from the character of its work and the necessary qualifications of its workers, both technically and personally, does not belong in a municipal civil service plan, anymore than do the schools. Every library which reaches that stage of growth when a staff of workers is necessary, must adopt standards of service, and methods of selecting workers who are especially qualified to maintain those standards. A good general education, wide knowledge and extensive reading of books, technical ability to arrange and handle collections of books and quick and ready sympathy with the needs and requirements of those who use books—all these are absolute requisites; and professional standards have been established by the library training schools during the past twenty-five years and are generally accepted in the library world. An examination within the library, which tests applicants by these requirements is practical and feasible and is used in many of the best libraries of the country. This is *library* civil service, or, *internal* civil service, and

should be *within* the institution, thus exempting libraries as well as schools from municipal civil service examinations, which however good for selecting firemen, policemen, etc., do not apply to specialized educational service.

If, under the commission plan of government, the public library, because of its classification under a certain municipal department, must select its workers from applicants passed upon by the municipal civil service board, and such employes retain their positions under the provisions of that board, whether rendering adequate service or not, as measured by the advancing and enlightened standards of twentieth century library work, then indeed is municipal civil service a calamity for the future of that library. It would be as reasonable for the city hall to pass upon the qualifications of the teachers in our public schools as to fix the standards of service in our public libraries.

Possibly the logic of the situation makes it desirable at this time to consider the question from another point of view, viz: Is education a matter for municipal decision, or is it not rather the larger subject of state concern? Is not the commonwealth so vitally concerned in the question of education that the responsibility is that of the state to say when and how provision shall be made for any phase of public education? If the interests of the state in education are paramount, it will justify the reluctance felt by many to the inclusion of the public schools under the direct municipal control of a department of education. If we shall class public libraries, art galleries, museums and free lectures as educational, the decision which applies to schools will with equal propriety apply to all of these, which are sometimes termed popular educational interests.

The public library movement is taking on such scope and strength in the United States that it cannot be disregarded in dealing with the question of education, and cannot be set aside as a minor educational interest. The field is so broad, the activities so varied in connection with the furnishing and distribution of books to all classes in a municipality, that the American Library Association not only urges the recognition of the public library as an educational factor, but also "the necessity for securing independence of action of the public library as an educational agency *coördinate with the schools.*"

If independence of action is to be secured, it is much more likely to be obtained under the provisions of a general state law regarding libraries, than by municipal action; and the financial support would be more likely to be adequate and stable, if based on a tax provision of the state law, which would apply to all of the cities of the state, whether under the commission form or not. Such law would provide for a Board of Library Trustees either elected or appointed and with definite powers. One of the uncertainties regarding the library, or the school, or any other educational interest, under the commission plan, would be the fluctuation of the

maintenance fund, depending largely upon the attitude of the commission as a whole, as to the relative importance of these interests; while under the provision of a state law there would be definite provision for a tax which need not fluctuate and which should be reasonably ample for the development of such interests. The present method of an elected school board which can fix its own tax levy, has this very obvious advantage, when we consider the specific interest involved.

The field to be reached by the free public library, supported by a municipal tax, is only limited by the number of people in the community who are able to read, and who know that the resources of the library are at their command. The great task before the American public library today is to lead the people to realize that the books are there for them, and that there is no interest or concern of theirs but may be definitely advanced and benefited, if only they learn, by means of the printed page, the best that has been thought or said or done regarding it.

Such information often brings actual returns in dollars and cents to the business man and the worker, as well as to the community, and the institution making such information available is a paying investment. Surely the task is no small one, if in addition to this, the public library lifts the toilers and the burdened workers, both in the home and in the business world, for a few hours each week or month, into the realm of imagination and aspiration through books of entertainment that take them out of themselves and into the world of idealism and fancy. The children are the especial concern of the public library and must be given access to the books that are fitted to the needs and aspirations of every growing year, and which may lead them into higher and larger views of life and of the responsibilities of citizenship.

With such a field and such an outlook a municipality cannot afford to hamper this democratic institution, and classify it under the department of finance, or of parks, or of public safety, or of public property, when, if directed in a large and sympathetic manner, the possibilities are great for rendering service to all classes in the community.

ALICE S. TYLER.¹

¹ Secretary Iowa library commission and director of library extension in Iowa

MUNICIPAL PENSIONS

BECAUSE a fireman has been half-killed in a burning building is no reason people should dance, if they do not wish to. Yet what frequenter of a city hall has not been compelled to buy tickets for a charity ball, to pay such a fireman's doctor bills? He who has escaped may thank evolution that his city no longer knows the benefit performance and the man with the subscription paper. The municipality has taken over the charity ball and made it into a new branch of government.

The process of change was simple. At first the fireman's fund was sporadic. Then, as gifts were made in recognition of special fire-fighting achievements, it became an institution and required municipal oversight. Formerly the benefits, even for a man permanently disabled, included only a wheel chair and an occasional collection. But justice demanded for him an annuity for life. Other men, too, might become similarly incapacitated. So the firemen gave a part of their monthly earnings and the municipality contributed fees from oil licenses or bon-fire permits to provide a permanent fund. But there were men worn out by long service as well as those injured in accidents. Did not the city owe them something? It seemed so. Provision, therefore, was made for retirement of veterans aged fifty-five or sixty, or for the pensioning of all men who had been on duty twenty or twenty-five years. Further fees and tax moneys were appropriated and, lo, the city had become partner in an insurance business.

But that was not all. Here were the policemen, subject to danger and exposure. When they had been provided for, there were the street cleaners, whose risks also were great. And how about the health officers and their assistants? Indeed, if a policeman or a fireman were to be supported in old age because he had worn himself out in making the city safe, why should not the accountant who had grown blind in keeping the city's books? Or, indeed, any employee who had been on duty twenty or thirty years or who was sixty years old? Why not, indeed? These queries carried strong appeal, and so it came about that, while certain cities pensioned their firemen, others their police, and yet others both, a few arranged that benefits might be provided for any of the city's workers. States, even, passed statutes empowering their cities to adopt universal pension plans.

The National Bureau of Labor reported in 1910 that eighty-six municipalities in the United States had firemen's funds and that eighty-one provided for police relief. New York City firemen, policemen, street cleaners, health department employees and teachers all participate in benefits administered by their respective departments, and any other

city employee, at the close of thirty years' service, may be pensioned by the board of estimates and apportionment. Pittsburgh employees have organized a mutual benefit association, open to 3500 persons. Chicago has inaugurated the system provided by an Illinois law of 1911, which establishes pension funds for all civil service employees in cities of more than 100,000 inhabitants, excepting firemen, policemen or others already provided for by special schemes. Many states authorize by statute the maintenance of firemen's and police pension systems. By a law of 1910, amended in 1911, Massachusetts permits any city or town, on popular vote, to adopt a retirement plan for all employees. No locality has yet taken action under this statute.

Europe has far outstripped the United States in municipal pensioning, as in social insurance generally. The list of cities which pension all officers and employees includes London, Paris, Berlin, Madrid, Stockholm, Antwerp, Birmingham, Breslau, Dresden, Edinburgh, Frankfort, Liverpool, Lyons, Nuremberg and Rotterdam.

"Pension plans" the municipal schemes are called, but some of them have no element of pension and are purely systems of insurance. In one or two localities official charity is dispensed. The typical arrangement, however, combines pension principle and insurance idea with a naive assumption that they are identical. What, indeed, is the difference?

A special committee on retirement, reporting in 1911 to the New York Civil Service Reform Association, contended that the term "pension" should describe only payments made entirely from the public treasury to "civil employees engaged in hazardous occupations who suffer injury or death in the performance of duty." "Insurance," on the other hand, would be paid from moneys contributed by the employees themselves for their own support in old age. The committee maintained that municipal support of men retired except for accident would be poor public policy. For those who should grow old in the service it recommended compulsory insurance. It contended that if wages were not sufficient so that employees could afford to pay their premiums, such wages should be increased.

Few cities have distinguished between pensions and insurance, either in raising the funds or in paying the claims. In most cases, contributions are made jointly by municipality and employees, the city's proportion usually being much the larger. Funds are paid out for old age and accident benefits alike. Participation by the employee usually is compulsory, premiums being deducted by the controller on basis of the payroll. Some systems are optional, as those of the New York health department and the Baltimore police. A Chicago laborer may be insured only on written application. In Massachusetts an employee

participates automatically unless he gives written notice that he wishes to be excused.

Not content with hybrid systems, some cities must have two—even two in the same department. Minneapolis has both a police benevolent association and a police relief association. The income of the former is chiefly from “amusements” and dues, while the latter receives one-tenth of one mill from the tax levy and practically nothing from the employees. Boston has several interesting relics of old plans. The Boston police relief association is voluntary, paying a member \$1 a day during sickness and \$100 on the death of his wife and insuring his life for \$1000. Income from the police charitable fund, which amounts to over \$200,000, is expended in benefits by the police commissioner, with the approval of the mayor. The Boston city council has power, in addition, to provide annuities for widows and orphans of officers killed while in discharge of their duty. All of these are provisions supplementing the established pension system.

Boston policemen are retired on half pay. Pittsburgh employees provide their own insurance. Cities in Maine give police pensions of \$1 a day. The firemen’s relief association of Richmond, Virginia, is entirely a voluntary life insurance organization.

The New York accountant gets a pension free; the policeman contributes 2 per cent of his salary. But the policeman is protected by a sort of insurance, while the accountant depends upon the will of the board of estimates and apportionment. Funds cover the risks of both street cleaners and firemen. The street cleaner pays 3 per cent, the fireman nothing. The New York retirement system was built bit by bit, beginning in 1857, with the establishment of a police pension system, and concluding with two acts of 1911 which provided for retirement from the health department and for the pensioning of employees not otherwise cared for. Teachers contribute 1 per cent of their salaries, and employees in the department of health, for whom participation is voluntary, 1 per cent.

Each fund receives fees collected by its own department. Thus is maintained the fiction that payments do not come from the taxpayers’ pockets. Such is the general practice throughout the country. Police pension funds receive fees from issuance of licenses for street peddling, keeping dogs, selling second-hand goods, giving entertainments and the like; proceeds from the sale of stolen property; gifts for unusual services by the department; police witness fees, etc., and are likely to draw on the liquor tax money. These are revenues aside from the participants’ own contributions. Budget appropriations are a last resort. Firemen’s funds are drawn from sources similarly related to the fire department. In addition to direct appropriation of \$700,000 for the police fund and

\$150,000 which that fund received from the sale of special bonds, \$1,501,-586.93 of revenues of the city of New York went into the various retirement funds in 1911, over and above the contributions of employees. Nor was the scheme for the street cleaning department yet well under way. The city budget for that year was \$173,967,835.16.

The Illinois plan, under which the new Chicago system has been organized, provides that each employee shall pay \$2 a month. The pension, in case of disability, or after twenty years' service, if the pensioner be fifty-five years old, is \$50 a month. No one will become a beneficiary prior to the year 1916, but an arrangement is made whereby persons retiring sooner may continue membership in the association and receive benefits when payments begin.

The Massachusetts system is unusual in that it distinguishes clearly between contributory insurance and payment entirely from city revenues. It defines the first as "annuity" and the second as "pension." The annuity fund is provided by a deduction of from 1 to 5 per cent of each participant's salary, as determined by the board of retirement for his class of employment. The man who draws an annuity is paid a pension of equal amount. That is, he insures himself and the city doubles his insurance.

Rule-of-thumb particularly appears in the differences in premiums required by the various cities, in the variety of sizes of annuities or pensions and in the diversity of terms on which they are offered. Collections vary from nothing to 3 per cent of the salary, or they may be fixed sums of from 50 cents to \$2 a month. Benefits may be in specified amounts or they may be in proportion to the salary. They may take the form of life annuities, sick benefits, life insurance or pensions to widows and orphans. In the majority of cases the annuity is half, or not more than half, of the annuitant's salary. The age at which the pensioner retires varies from fifty to seventy, with sixty the most common, and the length of employment ranges from fifteen years to thirty, centering at twenty. There is likely to be a space of five or ten years in which a man may secure a pension voluntarily, before his retirement is compelled. A comparatively young man of long service, too, may be pensioned on the same basis as an older man who has been employed for a briefer period.

With all this confusion, does a city know how much to collect and how much to pay? Trained statisticians say, No. For some systems there is no actuarial basis whatever. The city simply has calculated on one side of the slate how much the employee and the city will be willing to give and on the other side how much the employee would like to draw, has enacted each set of figures into a law and gone about other business. Occasionally someone has reasoned that, where one papers

an unmeasured wall with an unmeasured amount of paper, either the paper or the wall space may give out first. Interesting provisions have been made for shortages. Milwaukee, Philadelphia and Providence provide that, where the funds are insufficient, payments shall be pro rata. Amounts of Richmond, Virginia, police benefits are not fixed except as funds warrant. Baltimore provides that, after the usual dues, fees and forfeitures are exhausted, the balance shall be provided by taxation. The Baltimore theory is the one usually adopted. For a rule-of-thumb arrangement it is not bad; it may work as well as has the rough-and-ready system of the labor unions. It is as uncertain for the taxpayer, however, as the pro rata plan is for the beneficiary.

Here, again, Massachusetts demands attention. Her law provides that mortality tables are to be prescribed by the state insurance commissioner for the use of boards of retirement in fixing both premiums and annuities. All retirement associations are to report to the insurance commissioner and are by him to be supervised and examined. The charity ball of a generation ago has become a state system of municipal insurance.

The benefit in a retirement system is not only that to the employee. What the city gains is of no less value, although it is less measurable. Pensioning is not only an expression of justice but also a means of efficiency. It tends to keep good men in their places; it rids the service of wornout workers. Corporations practice it. When cities try it they approach that ideal state which candidates mention, where municipal affairs are run "as I would run my own business." To cast off a worn-out man is cruel. While spending a city's money, the official will not be cruel. If there be no retirement system, the city payroll will be filled with the names of men who should be, and really are, pensioners. In Boston in 1910, when conditions were investigated by the Massachusetts commission on old age pensions, annuities and insurance, 168 employees were over seventy years old and 491 were over sixty-five. The compensation of the 491 was \$419,888.45. Of their number, 296 were reported as inefficient. They were paid \$200,194.35. Under such circumstances city machinery will creak. Money will be wasted by semi-charities of questionable public honesty which it would be much better frankly to give away.

EDWARD F. MASON.¹

¹ Edward F. Mason, formerly of the editorial staff of the *Tacoma Tribune*, is now a student in the School of Journalism at Columbia University. His previous article in the *NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW* (see vol. i, p. 659) was entitled "Learning to Use the Recall."

A THIRTEENTH CENTURY SHORT CHARTER¹

IN THE year 1200, King John granted the following charter to the city of Northampton.

We will that in the said burg of Northampton, by the general vote of the citizens, there shall be elected four of the more learned and discreet men of the burg, who shall safeguard the interests of the Crown and other matters which to us and our Crown pertain in that burg, and who shall see to it that all the citizens of the said burg, both rich and poor, shall conduct themselves according to law and right.

Other charters in almost identical language were granted about this time to English municipal corporations. The "burgesses" or corporate members of these communities having the right to vote were generally limited to the merchants of the guilds. As the cities grew, this power came to be vested in a small minority of the population. The unenfranchised citizens, with increasing clamor, demanded some share in the city government and eventually this clamor was recognized by the formation of a common council with limited powers. This is the origin of our bi-cameral councilmanic system. It was not based on any sound theory of administration, but was simply a grudging concession made by the burghers to

¹ The point which Mr. Wallace makes in this article is one of great practical interest as well as historical interest. It is interesting to contrast this thirteenth century short charter with the proposed twentieth century short charter prepared by A. B. DuPont, the street railway expert of Cleveland. It is reproduced herewith in full.

SHORT (Democratic) CHARTER

ARTICLE I. All power now possessed by or hereafter acquired by the city of Cleveland in its officers, servants or council, shall be vested in the mayor, subject to modification through the initiative and referendum.

ARTICLE II. Legislative action, other than through initiative, shall be by proclamation and shall become effective thirty days after said proclamation but if, within said thirty days, a petition of 5000 electors be filed, said proclamation shall not become effective until sustained by a majority of those voting on the question at the election held in pursuance to said petition.

ARTICLE III. Executive action shall be in pursuance to and in accordance with legislation.

ARTICLE IV. Legislation may be initiated by the filing of a petition signed by 5000 electors and shall become effective when approved by a majority of those voting on the question at the election held in pursuance to said petition.

ARTICLE V. The mayor shall be recalled if defeated at an election held in pursuance of a petition of 15,000 electors filed with the board of elections or where required by law. Said election shall take place on the first Tuesday thirty days after the filing of said petition.

ARTICLE VI. Executive and legislative action, except as modified herein, shall be in accordance with existing law until changed in accordance with this charter.

the demands of the populace. Other corruptions complicating municipal machinery crept into the English charters until they became almost as imbecile as American city charters, with the result that one hundred years ago the corruption and inefficiency of English municipal government was as bad as anything we can boast of today.

The Englishmen took hold of this problem before we did and have solved it, substantially, by going back to the simplicity of the King John charter. The whole power of the city government is vested in a single councilmanic body and within certain restrictions it may exercise that power as it sees fit. The English courts have been more liberal than our courts in construing the powers of cities and they have, therefore, been able to develop more freely.

About ten years ago Galveston went into the hands of receivers, called a commission, and there was evolved from that accident a form of government which is called the commission form of government and has been widely heralded as a great discovery of this age. It is nothing of the kind. We have simply found out by accident what we should have found out by investigation, namely, that well governed cities almost universally are governed by the simple organ of a councilmanic body with full powers.

We have still an immense amount of debris to clear away before we can get our cities back to where they were in the thirteenth century. There is a striking contrast between the development of municipal corporations and private corporations under English law. The private corporations have maintained until this day the King John form of charter, providing simply for the election of a board of directors and vesting the government in that board. This is mainly due to the fact that efficiency is necessary to the life of a private corporation. A municipal corporation can be a failure and still continue to exist.

The English city government was almost at its worst at the time the United States became independent. We not only borrowed the corrupt forms of English city government, but made them still more inefficient by incorporating into them the impracticable philosophies of eighteenth century France. Historically viewed, the task which now confronts us as city organizers, is to cut away the vast impeding growth of complicated structural form and legal restrictions under which our larger cities today are still smothered.

We will only have accomplished half of our task when we get back to the simple organism of a board of directors or a single councilmanic body. The second half of our task is to give this body power to act. In this word-beridden age, it is hard for our legislators to get out of the habit of defining and limiting the powers of city governments with all the niceties of a lawyer drawing a spendthrift trust. In many states it is felt that in order to get home rule for cities, it is necessary to await a constitutional

amendment. A study of the charters of King John would seem to indicate that we can get a very large measure of home rule without any constitutional amendment. The restrictions in most of our state charters are only against special legislation. So long as we persist in hampering our cities with the full detail of working machinery and finely drawn limitations of powers, classification of cities will be necessary, with all the attendant restrictions; but in very few states would a general grant of power vesting the government of a city in an elected council be unconstitutional. A charter can be drawn restricting the city only from such activities as may conflict with the general laws and the constitution. This breadth of intention would have to be clearly expressed on account of the drift of legal decisions in this country construing charter grants to municipalities strictly against the city.

Such a simplified form of charter would accomplish two things. In the first place, it would remove the necessity of classification excepting, perhaps, as to the number of councilmen. In the second place, it would free the cities from their present insupportable position. Cities have different needs, differing conditions, and year by year they are outgrowing their old legal clothes. They cannot be their own tailor, and so are now constantly hammering at the door of the legislature for leave to do some detail of administrative business the way they wish to do it. They have no recognized organ for expressing their opinion on such matters. Political leaders, volunteer bodies of citizens and newspaper articles constitute the means used to persuade the legislature that a community wants any given thing. The legislatures are often in honest doubt as to just what the community does want. By board general grants of power, each community will be authorized to solve these problems for itself.

Both in the amendments to our state constitutions and to our state charters, as illustrated by the record of the past few years, there is still a very strong tendency to great multiplication of detail. This necessarily results in two things. First, a constant agitation to change the fundamental law as conditions change; second, a burden upon the courts to relieve against the fundamental law by judicial decisions which give flexibility to the rigidity of the law. So long as we put this burden upon our courts, they will necessarily have to bear it. We can get rid of all this clamor about government by judicial decision, by carefully studying King John's charter and modeling our fundamental law upon its lines.

Of course, in order to apply this principle to our state governments, with safety, it will be necessary to secure a more efficient form of organization there. For instance, the state of Pennsylvania employs two hundred fifty-seven \$1800 men, divided into senate and house, a governor and a supreme court to provide its law. The two legislative bodies are supposed to check each other. The governor checks them both with his

veto and the supreme court checks them all by decisions as to constitutionality of acts. Administration is confused by numerous other elective officials with limited powers of various kinds. So complicated and irresponsible a state government must necessarily be inefficient and that is why our legislatures have been hobbled by overgrown constitutions which permit them to take only very short steps in any direction. Here also we might study to advantage, not only the early charters of English cities, but also the present government of England where one legislative body has vested in it all of the law making power.

GEORGE R. WALLACE.²

ST. PAUL'S COMPTROLLER: AN INTERESTING EXPERIMENT

SAIN'T PAUL, Minnesota, has broken new ground in its commission charter. It has selected as legislative and administrative officers a council of seven, including the mayor, and in this respect it has followed usual lines of commission plan charter practice. These administrative officers have been given full power and authority, subject to initiative and referendum, to do as they please in the carrying on of the city's business. There are few checks and balances in the ordinary sense.

A check has, however, been supplied—the check of effective publicity. St. Paul has as an eighth elective officer a comptroller, having no part whatever in administering the business of the city, except in connection with finances and the countersigning of documents and contracts. His function is that of controlling, checking and publicity officer. Pains have been taken that he may get possession of the facts which he would make public.

He has no patronage except the appointment of a personal staff, and that is not large. The comptroller is given an auditor, and an engineering officer for the purpose of inspection and the developing of facts.

First of all such an officer must be put effectively in possession of the significant facts relating to administration. To do this we have provided that the comptroller shall install and supervise an accounting system for the city, and keep controlling accounts with all departments and officers.

This means nothing more than that he shall see that such a record is made of facts as to revenue received, revenue spent, purchases, salaries, costs, work performed, as to present to him at all times an intelligible summary of these facts. The usual well digested accounts will deal with the revenue and expenditure sides.

² Of Pittsburgh. Formerly a civil service commissioner and an active member of the committee which drafted the present charter for that city.

Authority is given the comptroller to require systems of cost accounts. His inspector may be used to control inspections, and the comptroller may install such a system of inspection records for each department as may readily yield to control. In other words he is in position first to know that the books on the face of them show that the money has been properly spent and accounted for, for lawful purposes, and second that value has been received for the money spent, or the services rendered.

As part of that plan of control, we have made the comptroller the civil service commissioner. I want to call attention to the fact that St. Paul is a city of 225,000 inhabitants, and the comptroller can take up the direction of this service with his other duties without being overloaded. Whether such a system might successfully be applied to New York or Chicago or Philadelphia, is for the moment beside the point.

The situation resolves itself in this way: Civil service systems are for the purpose of controlling employment in public office with a view to securing efficient help and seeing that such help is efficiently managed. That control heretofore has been in the hands of the local executive officer, the mayor, through his appointees, or it has been in the hands of the governor of the state through his appointees.

Control is not the business of the mayor; his task is administration of city business. Control and administration cannot be joined in the same officer without making the control a farce. The appointees of the mayor, who are the creatures of the mayor, cannot be expected to control him. Neither is the governor a controlling officer. Even if he were successful in controlling the internal administrative system of a city he would be giving it irresponsible government; violating the principle of home rule. There is no excuse in systems of democratic government for having any political sub-division controlled in local business by an officer not responsible to the people of that sub-division and to them alone.

St. Paul met the problem by placing civil service control in the hands of the officer in which it placed accounting control and financial control, the comptroller. He is elected by the people and responsible to them alone. Without the power of spending money, or of appointing any considerable number of employes, he can make a record only by seeing that other officers do not abuse these powers.

By giving him charge of the civil service, we place in his possession another class of significant facts, of the utmost importance in the control of administrative departments. He has as comptroller at his disposal a great many of the facts which he needs as civil service commissioner. It is an economical plan as well as an effective plan.

Of course in the civil service he will act through civil service executive clerk or examiner, just as in the inspection service he will act through an engineer and in the accounting service through an auditor and accountant.

Besides collecting these facts and making them available to himself for control purposes, he is obliged to digest these facts, place them in understandable form, and give them to the public periodically—at least monthly.

As a portion of the plan of giving him financial control, we make the comptroller a necessary factor in the issue of bonds, in the final execution of contracts, in the making of the budget. In the process of budget-making he comes into possession of another set of facts, of crucial importance in working out control. His budget may be increased or cut down, but not radically increased.

It has been suggested that the comptroller may yield to pressure in this budget-making, should the council threaten to cut down his allowance for help. Salaries of his department are fixed for definite terms by administrative ordinances not in issue at the time of passing upon the budget. Should the council and the mayor attempt to change administrative ordinances and hamper the comptroller while the making of a budget was pending, the attempt would be so obvious and the circumstances so sinister, that the comptroller might confidently appeal to public sentiment and receive complete protection.

St. Paul has made its comptroller far more important than the comptroller of any city with which I am acquainted, but it has limited him strictly to control and publicity functions. He is given control of fact records, or accounts, including inventories of city property; control over bond issues, control over contract execution, control over budget-making, control over civil service appointments and discharges. It is made his duty to make public an intelligible summary of facts developed along all of these lines. We believe in thus assigning to an elective, non-administrative officer all control functions and giving him authority to make his control effective and complete, we have blazed a trail which municipalities and states will follow as soon as they see what has been done. This, we hope, is especially true of the civil service. St. Paul, we believe, has placed this civil service control where it should be, in the hands of an elective officer responsible to the people served by the civil service controlled.

J. W. BENNETT.¹

THE RECENT ENGLISH BOROUGH ELECTIONS

ALTHOUGH the municipal elections that were held throughout England on November 1, 1912, presented little that was unusual or surprising to students of English local government and politics, they illustrate, or at least recall to mind, some of the features of such contests in England which may strike those persons acquainted only with similar phenomena in the United States as interesting if not peculiar.

¹ Of the *St. Paul Dispatch*.

In the first place it is to be noted that in English municipal elections, which occur annually in November, the voting is for councillors only, not for a number of executive officers also, as is the usual case in the United States. Only one-third of the councillors are elected each year for a period of three years.

The nominations are by petition of ten registered voters and the official ballots contain no party designations. While the candidates usually line up for local elections under the banner of the various national parties and are supported by the local organizations of these parties, the central party organs make no attempt to dictate to the local associations who their candidate shall be. It is no doubt true that, generally speaking, a liberal in national politics will vote for a liberal candidate in the municipal elections and that a conservative will ordinarily support the conservative candidate, but there is no necessary connection between the national and the local policies of either one of the parties. Owing to the relatively light vote for borough councilmen the majority of the council may well be and not infrequently is of one party while the representatives from the constituency in the house of commons belong to the other.

Third candidates are uncommon, though labor candidates and independents and even socialists now and then succeed in electing some councillors.

Perhaps the most striking feature of the qualifications for candidacy is the fact that not only is residence within the ward or borough not a necessary qualification for voting but even candidates need not as a matter of law, and do not as a matter of practice necessarily reside in the ward or even borough in which they are elected. The law permits a person who satisfies all the other requirements for voting to reside outside of the limits of the municipality to a distance of seven miles and still be an elector. In the case of candidates this radius is increased to fifteen miles and as a matter of fact there are in each election a surprisingly large number of these non-resident candidates; thus violating what to most Americans seems the fundamental principle of having the candidate reside in the district he represents. This feature of the English elections—parliamentary as well as municipal—manifestly operates to eliminate the evils of ward politics.

Another striking feature of English municipal contests, illustrated again in these recent elections, is the fact that at each election there are a large number of seats that are not contested at all, and where consequently there is no election contest. This peculiarity, which again is just as marked in the parliamentary elections, serves of itself to free English local elections from much of the corruption that is incident to municipal elections in this country. But it may be added that the English "illegal and corrupt practices act" imposes very minute restrictions on the campaign activity of the candidate and his followers. Furthermore where

there are contests for seats, there are rarely more than two or at most three candidates in spite of the simple nominating method. Not only is the number of candidates small, but the number of voters who go to the polls are frequently only about 25 per cent of all who are entitled to vote.

Unmarried women and widows are eligible to be elected as councillors. In the provinces the disqualification of married women prevents any considerable number of women candidates from running, but in London where married women are admitted to candidacy there are always a number of aspirants.

Conditions are somewhat different in the London boroughs in almost all of these respects from those in the provincial towns, though not to a very marked extent. London is divided up into twenty-eight metropolitan boroughs, besides the city of London, and in these the elections come only every three years, and all of the councilors are elected at the same time. Furthermore, the local parties have distinct names in the borough councils, as also in the London county council, being called moderates or municipal reformers and progressives, respectively, instead of conservatives and liberals. But this does not prevent the party division from being about the same as in parliamentary elections, though frequently the majority in the councils is of the opposite party to that of the parliamentary representatives from the same areas.

Turning now to the actual results of the election in the provincial towns it is seen that all parties made some gains and suffered some losses. According to the returns in the *London Post* of November 2, the unionist and conservative gains together were 56; those of the liberals 30; those of the labor party 23; those of the independents 9; those of the socialists 4. This does not mean net gains, however, and it is impossible to see from the returns just what the losses of each party were. According to the information available it seems that the unionist-conservative losses were 26; those of the liberals 40; those of the labor party 7; those of the independents 3 and those of the socialists 4. This leaves the conservative-unionists with a net gain of 30; the liberals with a net loss of 10; the labor party with a net gain of 15; the independents with a net gain of 6; and the socialists with neither gain nor loss. The excess of 41 total gain over the total loss is to be accounted for partly by the fact that the returns were not completely available, partly by the fact that some of the party gains were from local parties that were not listed, and partly by the fact that the number of councillors was increased in some boroughs prior to this last election.

It is apparent from the figures that no very far-reaching changes resulted in the constitution of borough councils by the recent elections. This is the more obvious when it is remembered that the party gains and losses are spread over more than 350 boroughs and that moreover in any given borough only one-third of the council was voted for. Add to this the further fact that in a large proportion of the boroughs a number of

the vacancies were not contested at all but left to the prior incumbent without a vote it will not seem surprising that in a large number of boroughs there was absolutely no change in the political makeup of the councils as a result of the elections, and that among those boroughs from which reports were available there were only two in which the majority in the council was altered by the last elections.

In the London borough elections the changes were even less apparent. Prior to the last election the parties controlling the 28 metropolitan boroughs were moderates, 24; progressives, 3; independents, 1. As a result of the last elections the moderates now control 23, the progressives 3, and the independents 2.¹

One of the interesting features of the London elections was that out of something over 50 women candidates 18 were successful, as compared with 10 out of 61 who ran in the elections of 1909. The women councillors are distributed among the parties as 8 municipal reforms, 2 progressives, 6 labor party and 2 independent.

There were 276 uncontested seats assigned, mostly to municipal reformers and in two entire boroughs there were no contested seats. For the 1100 contested seats there were only 2500 candidates in the field.

Another feature of the last elections in London was the unusually small poll. As stated above, the vote in municipal elections is generally small but this year it seems to have been even smaller than usual. According to Mr. Galton the explanation of the small poll, and at the same time of the insignificant progressive vote (for he maintains that the larger the vote the better the vote of the progressives) is partly in the fact that the polling day was on a Friday, which he states is the worst possible day for the laborers, and partly in the fact that the war in the near East and the autumn session of parliament prevented the newspapers from giving much space to the borough elections.

Mr. Galton contends, furthermore, that while the liberals are in power the progressives strain every nerve to prevent a progressive majority from being elected to the local authorities, and that this is true of the borough councils as of the London county council. The *London Post*, on the other hand, a moderate newspaper, maintains that the progressives are not enthusiastic about their fight for the borough councils because they want them abolished with the hope of then controlling the county council and thus dominating the whole of the municipality. The elections for the county council which occur in March of this year promise a closer contest between the progressives, who were in power for 15 continuous years from 1889 until 1906—although in national politics London was conservative—and

¹ According to Mr. Galton, secretary of the London Reform Union, the moderates now control 22, the progressives 4 and the independents 2, a difference to be explained by the fact that in one of the boroughs the parties are equal and hence both reformers and progressives claim that borough.

the moderates or municipal reformers who came into power after the liberal party had carried the London constituencies by a large majority.

This brings us to a consideration of the platforms of the two principal parties in the London elections. According to the campaign literature of the municipal reformers or moderates their program includes the maintenance of the borough councils to deal with local affairs as heretofore; relief for the ratepayer by securing further grants from the national government for services preponderantly national in character; the limitation of municipal trading to such undertakings as cannot be effectively carried out by private enterprise. They decry the progressives as the socialist party. The other party stands, according to Mr. Galton, for greater centralization and for equalization of rates in London, for an extension of municipal enterprise, and for fair and generous treatment of labor. According to his view the municipal reformers are opposed to these ideas. As the county council is charged with the functions that pertain to the whole of London there are not many points on which the contest can turn throughout all the boroughs in London.

As regards the conduct of the campaign both in London and the provincial cities, the *London Municipal Journal* regrets that matters were so generally brought in to arouse political enthusiasm which had only a remote connection with party politics instead of letting municipal elections be fought on municipal issues. Especially reprehensible does the *Journal* find the general promises of candidates to reduce rates, when it is apparent to every one that in the very nature of things rates must continue to go up and that no party can relieve the ratepayers.²

HERMAN G. JAMES.³

² According to an Associated Press dispatch dated London, March 6:

The municipal reformers for the third time gained today a majority in the London county council, although not so large as in 1907, when they had a majority of forty. They improved their position, however, over 1910, when their majority was two.

Of the 118 members elected today, 67 are reformers and 51 progressives. The nine seats gained by the reformers and the two by the progressives are widely distributed and indicate no specially noteworthy change of opinion.

The reformers, who are allied in opinion to the conservatives in parliament, besides increasing their majority to sixteen, will be able still further to strengthen it by the election of ten aldermen.

Municipal ownership of the street railways was the chief issue in the election. The council already owns and operates 146 of these, built when the progressives (who in imperial policies are liberals) were in power. The members of this party favor the extension of the system and other legislation which would place the municipally owned roads in a better position to compete against the privately owned transportation companies. Their opponents, the municipal reformers, are conservative in municipal affairs and were never enamored of public ownership. Very few extensions have been made since they came into power three years ago.

The council consists of a chairman chosen by the council, nineteen aldermen, also chosen by the council, and 118 councillors elected by the ratepayers direct. It has administrative authority over an area of 117 square miles in matters of a general nature. The annual expenditure is about \$75,000,000, more than half of which is for education.

³ Adjunct Professor in the School of Government, University of Texas.

THE INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR THE SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF THE ALCOHOL QUESTION¹

THE first meeting of this body was held at the College de France, Paris, January 27 to 29. The opening exercises were conducted by M. Emile Loubet, former president of the French Republic, who is the honorary president of the international committee. Delegates representing the different national groups attended from the following countries: Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Russia, Switzerland and the United States. In all, there were forty-three committee delegates.

Among the men of special note who took part may be mentioned: From Austria, Baron Vladimir von Prazak; from Belgium, Professors Zunz and Schoofe, both of the Commission Permanente de l'Alimentation Humaine; from France, professors of the College de France, d'Arsonval, Gautier and Bordas, M. Yves Guyot, former minister of public works, M. Ribot, former prime minister of France, M. Lucien March, director of statistics, Prof. Levy, the economist; from Germany, Dr. Königsberger, Dr. Hartman (both connected with the International League for Comparative Legislation and Political Economy) and Count Schweinitz; from Great Britain, the Right Hon. Lord Lamington, privy councillor, Professor Dixon of Cambridge University and Professor Armit of the Lister Institute; from Italy, Commandatore Magaldi, vice-president of the National Institute of Insurance, and Professor Niceforo; from Russia, His Excellency Alexis Yermoloff, secretary of state to the emperor, etc., Professor Poussepp, vice-president of the Psychological Institute at St. Petersburg; and from Switzerland, Dr. Gobat, councillor of state, and Professor Milliet.

Several of the countries had sent official delegates representing ministries in the different governments or public institutions. Thus the French ministries of the interior, finance, foreign affairs, war, navy and agriculture were officially represented. For the United States, Consul-General Mason of Paris was delegated by the state department to attend and report the meetings which were necessarily conducted in the French language.

The earlier sessions were given over to a discussion of the general program of study. Each national group had prepared its suggestions in advance. Some of them were very elaborate, not to say over-ambitious, and hardly practical for the purposes of an international body. It was therefore resolved that the brief French program should be used as the basis for discussion. After many hours of debate and explanations, the following general program was unanimously adopted:

¹ See article in NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. i, p. 680.

ARTICLE I

Does alcohol possess any nutritive properties?

ARTICLE II

a. What is the relative influence of the forms in and customs under which alcohol is consumed?

b. What are the effects of the degree of alcohol and of foreign substances added to it or derived from the distillation of fermented products?

ARTICLE III

a. What are the principal causes and what are the principal effects of alcoholism?

b. What are the principal means employed to combat alcoholism and what are their results?

ARTICLE IV

A critical inquiry into the different national statistics relating to the production and consumption of alcohol and of alcoholic drinks.

ARTICLE V

The various inquiries may have reference to colonies as well as to the mother country.

With reference to Article IV, the following resolution was adopted:

"Each national group shall appoint one or more reporters whose duty it shall be:

1. To present all the official statistical documents for their respective countries relating to the production, consumption and effects of alcohol;

2. To accompany these documents with a critical commentary indicating in detail so far as possible the causes of error which affect the respective statistics.

3. It is desirable that these statistical documents shall cover a period of twenty years.

4. At the end of November, 1913, each reporter shall send the results of his inquiry to a reporter-general whose duty it shall be to control the whole work, so that it may be carried out according to a uniform plan, and thus made comparable for the different countries. Thereupon the reporter-general shall present the whole of these reports to a general meeting which will probably be held at Easter time in 1914."

To some the international program as finally adopted may seem altogether too general and elementary. Considerable inclination was shown at first to be more elaborate and specific. It was pointed out, however, that the desideratum is a plan of work so broad that it meets the common needs of an international body and yet affords the different national groups an opportunity to consider conditions of special interest to them. To fashion a program in detail which might have answered all the wants of each participating country would probably have been an impossibility.

It was emphasized that the adoption of the international program would in no wise prevent the different national groups from laying stress upon special studies of peculiar interest to their countries. Moreover, it will be noted that the terms of the international program are so broad that it is feasible to comprehend under them practically all of the suggestions made, for instance, by the American section, as will be seen from the subjoined program framed by it and submitted to the general meeting.

SUGGESTED AMERICAN PROGRAM

1. The food value of the different alcoholic beverages.
2. The physiological and psychological results of the drinking habit, in their relation to the kinds of alcoholic beverages consumed.
3. The relation of drinking to morbidity.
4. The relation of drinking to mortality.
5. The relation of drinking to economic efficiency.
6. The effects of parental inebriety upon the birth-rate and offspring.
7. The relation of the drink habit to mental disease.
8. The relation of the drink habit to crime.
9. Liquor legislation: (a) fundamental principles of regulation; (b) fundamental principles of the taxation of the manufacture and sale of intoxicants.
10. The social treatment of inebriety; (a) by the state; (b) by private endeavor.
11. The effects of changes in the drink habits of the American people.
12. Statistics of the liquor problem.

A particularly instructive discussion preceded the resolution concerning the proposed study of the statistics of the production and consumption of alcohol and of the effects of alcohol. Professor Milliet, M. Lucien March and others showed how utterly unreliable these statistics are at present, and how they give rise to fallacies not only in regard to the extent of the production and consumption of alcohol, but also in regard to the actual extent of alcoholism. The air will be greatly cleared by a scientific presentation of the whole subject.

In regard to the methods of organizing the international committee there was at the outset a marked difference of opinion. For various reasons which need not be fully restated here, it seemed inexpedient to try and work out a form or organization at the initial general meeting. Among other things, several of the delegates felt that they had not sufficient authority in this respect without specific instructions from their sections. Instead the following resolution was adopted:

The general assembly decides that a drafting commission (*commission constituante*) shall be created and invites each national section to elect one of its members as a delegate to this commission. The drafting commission shall be charged with formulating the statutes in regard to the organization and constitutions of international committee for the scientific

study of the alcohol question and shall accomplish its task within six months from February 1, 1913. The national sections shall give notice of the members thus elected to the already existing provisional bureau, whose duty it shall be to assemble the drafting commission and to see to it that the latter discharges the duty with which it is entrusted. The provisional bureau shall receive the plans formulated by the drafting commission and convoke a general assembly to take action on them; and meanwhile it shall conduct the affairs of the international committee."

In explanation of the above it may be said that for some months a provisional bureau has been maintained at Paris, which had charge of the work preliminary to the first general meeting.

It is expected that the drafting commission will convene some time in May, probably at Brussels. When the next general meeting is to be held will then be decided.

At the closing session, a brief presentation was made of the work of the psycho-neurological institute at St. Petersburg and plans were submitted of the new department for the treatment of alcoholics and study of alcoholic diseases. The vice-president of the institute brought an official invitation to the medical members of the committee to use its laboratories for scientific study as it offers facilities hardly to be obtained elsewhere for carrying out a part of the international program. The invitation was received with much favor after Professor d'Arsonval and others had told of the value of the institute, which from now on is to be known as the international institute for the study of alcoholism.

One may fairly say that the project of forming an international body for scientific study of the alcohol problem, which has been agitated for two years or more, is now realized. The formalities of organization which yet remain will not hinder the different sections from beginning active work. Both on the part of the scientific men present and the official delegates keen interest was shown.

In all likelihood some of the sections will receive subsidies from their respective governments for carrying on the different inquiries. In other countries, notably Great Britain and the United States, the necessary means must be obtained from private sources. The different groups will also be asked to contribute toward the expenses of a central bureau.

It will probably take several years before the international committee can finish its work. The field is large and in some countries practically untilled. Perhaps no delegate to the Paris meeting entertains the hope that what is commonly spoken of as a "solution of the alcohol question" will be reached through the projected studies. But it is something to make progress and present facts upon which rational action may be based in the future. The hope for it lies in the fact that representative men of some principal countries in the world are joining hands in a scientific study. It

is fully expected that several other countries will take part later on. There may be differences of attitude toward the drink problem among those who were present, but they will approach it without bias, simply concerned to find out and state the truth.

It is interesting to note that at the Paris Meeting frequent mention was made of the work of the American Committee of Fifty which, it was confessed, furnished the idea of forming an international body; and the wish was freely expressed that the results of the new undertaking may fully measure up to the standard set in the United States.

JOHN KOREN.²

THE NEW YORK POLICE INVESTIGATION

ALTHOUGH those who have opposed the present police inquiry by the board of aldermen of New York are declaring that the investigation by this committee has been a publicity campaign with a view to making the police department a political issue for the coming election in New York City, and although those in power and in charge of the administration have endeavored to obstruct at every turn the inquisitors, this committee by the first of May will have completed the first intelligent study and analysis of the administration of police in the city of New York.

When the committee started its work in the summer of 1912, the opinion was general in New York that the investigation was to be "a hunt for the grafters," and that a small army of detectives would be assembled for the purpose of running down these police grafters and creating a sensational scandal in the city which might well be used as political capital later on.

Great fear was felt that this aldermanic committee would become so ambitious in its desire for publicity of a sensational character, that it would meddle and tamper with the investigation already begun by the district attorney of New York County, which would result in chaos and perhaps in giving immunity to a number of vicious police officials who might be turned up as grafters in the course of the investigation.

Much to the satisfaction of all those who wish well for New York and its citizens, and I might say to the surprise of the many civic agencies in New York, out of what seemed to be and almost was, a hysterical condition, grew a well defined, honest, sincere, and constructive analysis of the police department by the aldermanic committee. This study not only in no way interfered with the district attorney in his research for violators of the

² Secretary of the American section, member of the committee on liquor problem of the National Municipal League and president of the American Statistical Association.

law, but on the contrary brought about a coöperation between counsel for the aldermanic committee, Emory R. Buckner, and the district attorney's office which has resulted in a great many indictments and prosecutions by the district attorney's office and a comprehensive study of administrative police matters by the aldermen.

The police department was divided into various branches, and under the supervision of the Bureau of Municipal Research, accountants, investigators, and experts were sent into them to examine carefully their methods and operations. In order to reach a diagnosis, in its effort to locate the disease from which the department is suffering, the aldermanic committee has called in within the last week many doctors on police, among them George B. McClellan, who served two terms as mayor of New York City; Seth Low, who served one term; District Attorney James C. Cropsey, a former police commissioner; Chief City Magistrate William McAdoo, a former police commissioner; Arthur Woods, former deputy police commissioner; Bert Hanson; John McCullough, former chief of police of the city; and a number of others who have been connected with police work in the city at some period.

The testimony of these men as experts varies so much that the problem of diagnosing in order to find a remedy is made very difficult for the committee. The difference of opinion as to "just what is the matter with New York's police?" and the remedies suggested to cure these ills, may be best illustrated by extracts from the record.

Questions which have been uppermost in the minds of those interested in the police problem in New York, and even elsewhere, have been "what should be the tenure of office of a police commissioner," "who should appoint him," and "how should he be removed."

On these points various experts testified as follows:

J. C. Cropsey, former police commissioner: Personally, I would not favor having any fixed term for the police commissioner; I would not have the police commissioner elected; I would have the police commissioner appointed by the mayor and subject to his removal at will.

William McAdoo, former police commissioner: During the term I was police commissioner, I became convinced that the first cardinal weakness of the police administration in New York is the tenure of the commissioner. The commissioner has absolutely no tenure of office The result of it is this, if he is a very able and honest man all the crooked and inefficient element in the police department want to get rid of him, so from the time he takes office—and they have his measure—they begin counterplotting against him. They will even go so far as to create a crime wave through the newspapers, as they think that is the speediest way of putting them out My idea is that the police commissioner ought to be appointed by the mayor for a term of ten years, not less, and should not be subject to removal except by the appellate division of the supreme court on trial and charges made.

Léonard F. Fuld, civil service examiner and author of "Police Administration": I should think that the police commissioner should have a fixed term. At least he should have as secure an office as his subordinate, the patrolman He should be appointed by the mayor, subject to removal upon charges.

George B. McClellan, former mayor: I believe the police commissioner should be appointed by the mayor and subject to removal only upon charges It might even be wise to give him a public hearing.

Seth Low, former mayor of New York: I am sure the governor exercising state functions should have the right to dismiss the police commissioner after hearing charges, but the mayor of the city should appoint the police commissioner and have a right to remove him at will.

Arthur Woods, former deputy police commissioner: If the police commissioner should be appointed by the mayor for a term, we will say, of ten years, subject to removal by the mayor arbitrarily, but only after a public hearing in which the police commissioner has full opportunity to be heard, to be represented by counsel if he chooses, I think that we should have an improvement over the present situation. Give the police commissioner the assurance that he will stay ten years in office, unless the mayor is ready to brave public opinion in removing him My object would be to make it difficult for a mayor to remove a police commissioner for improper reasons, and yet make it easy for a mayor to remove a police commissioner for proper reasons.

Frank Moss, former police commissioner: My opinion is there should be one commissioner, as there is at present; that he should be appointed by the mayor; that he should be subject to removal at will by the mayor I think that it was a mistake to abolish the office of chief of police.

In the city of New York policemen before being dismissed from the force are entitled to a trial before their commissioner or a deputy, and this trial takes the form of a court procedure, the policeman being represented by counsel. After dismissal the policeman is entitled to a court review. Police commissioners and experts on police,—if there be any—are at a wide variance as to the efficiency of this law. The differences of opinion on this subject can be more fully appreciated by the following extracts from the record of the inquiry.

James C. Cropsey on this point testified as follows:

I would give them (members of the police department) certainly no less protection, and neither would I give them any more protection, than any other civil service employees that would mean, that a man about to be removed would have an opportunity for making an explanation, a chance to present an explanation or his excuse, then before he can be dismissed or when he is dismissed, if at all, the head of the department should file in writing the reasons for his dismissal.

Chief Magistrate McAdoo, former police commissioner, when asked his views on this question, had this to say:

A patrolman must have security. Must know that he has a tenure of office. . . . I had a plan worked out, following the lines of the army and the navy in the United States, that I thought would be a good substitute for the present system. The highest penalty now for a policeman is thirty days' fine or removal. I have always believed that there should be an intermediary punishment like demotion, that is, in those fixed ranks where a promotion is not an arbitrary matter; but above all I think that the thing would be this: that the finding of facts by the police commissioner, through his deputies, should be final. The question of review before the higher court would then be this: Did this man have a fair trial? Were his constitutional and legal rights under the charter and under the law observed? . . . The only question for review should be whether he was tried regularly. There I would stop, and I would not go any further in arbitrary demotion.

Assistant District Attorney Frank Moss, also a former police commissioner, at a different point of view testified as follows:

I think a patrolman ought to have the right of review. Probably the present method enlarges that right of review more than is necessary. I have thought that there might be a special board of review legally created by which the sentence of a policeman might be reviewed quickly and on a broader basis than is done in the courts. There are not so many men restored.

Arthur Woods, former deputy police commissioner, gave an entirely different point of view. He said:

I do believe that if a policeman's offence has been so serious that he has been justly and properly dismissed from the force, he ought not to go back on the force. I believe it is important for the general morale of the force for him to stay off. I think he should have the right to a court review of his dismissal, and if court decides that the dismissal was not merited, he should be allowed to bring a suit for damages against the city.

Bert Hanson, a former deputy who served as a trial commissioner, agreed in some respects and said:

I think the reinstatement question is a very serious thing, and I think that under no circumstances should a man be reinstated on the police force. If he has been improperly dismissed, he should have redress in some other way. I think that it would be cheaper for the city to pay him damages than to take him back on the force, and in fact a good deal better.

On the question of whether or not the head of the force should come from the uniformed ranks rather than be a civilian, almost all the experts have agreed but vary in their opinions as to just whether there should be a chief of police and if there should be a chief, just what his powers should be. Some believe that there should be a permanent chief who should rise from the ranks, receive a much higher salary than the other inspectors, and be

given full control of the uniformed force, subject to the approval on matters of policy by the commissioner. Former commissioner Frank Moss was strongest in favor in this, while Mr. Cropsey believed that there should be a head of the uniformed force, regardless of what he was called, who would be directly under the control of the commissioner, subject to appointment and removal at will by the commissioner.

All of the experts are agreed that the present salary of the police commissioner of New York is entirely too small, and the majority have recommended a salary of \$15,000 a year.

The constructive study of various bureaus of the department, and particularly that of pensions, will be continued until about April 1, when the reports and recommendations of the various experts now engaged in examining the department will be filed.

CLEMENT J. DRISCOLL.¹

¹ First deputy under former Commissioner Cropsey. He is now supervising the police studies which the New York Bureau of Municipal Research is making in behalf of the aldermanic committee.

NOTES AND EVENTS

PROFESSOR CHARLES AUSTIN BEARD, *Columbia University, New York*,
Associate Editor in Charge

ASSISTED BY

PROFESSOR MURRAY GROSS, *Drexel Institute, Philadelphia*

PROFESSOR EDWARD M. SAIT, *Columbia University, New York*

I. GOVERNMENT AND ADMINISTRATION

The Commission Government Movement.¹—The meeting of thirty-seven legislatures in the early months of 1913 and the adoption of home rule amendments last November in Ohio, Nebraska, and Texas has been the occasion for unusual activity throughout the country in the field of city charters.

The following cities should be added to the list of accessions to the commission government movement during 1912 and 1913: Fort Smith, Ark.; Denver, Col.; Pensacola, Fla.; Cairo, Harrisburg, and Murphysboro, Ill.; Ottumwa, Iowa; Garnett, Hiawatha and Sabetha, Kan.; Alexandria, Jennings, Natchitoches, Lake Charles and New Iberia, La.; Vicksburg, Miss.; Vineland, N. J.; Devil's Lake, Williston, N. D.; Spartansburg, S. C.; Watertown, S. D.; Lebanon, Tenn.; Ashland and Ladysmith, Wis. The following cities have recently rejected the plan: West Orange, N. J.; Taylor, Texas; Princeton, Champaign and Joliet, Ill.



General Laws.—*Indiana Business Plan.* What is termed the "business system of city government" is now before the Indiana legislature. The plan was drafted by a committee of lawyers, educationalists and business men representing the Federated Commercial Clubs of the state. It was first suggested at a

¹ These notes were prepared in February and the legislation in many cases has been materially advanced since that date and will be taken up in the July notes.—EDITOR.

convention of this organization held in October, 1911. In effect the plan is a combination of the old form of municipal government and the commission system. It provides for a board of councilors elected by the people, varying in number from nine to twenty-five according to the class of the city; cities of the first, or largest class, will of course have the biggest board. This board selects and appoints a mayor and four commissioners, and these five men constitute the board of administration which is the operating branch of the government, and also the legislative body and passes all ordinances, subject to the approval of the council. All offices of a subordinate nature are created and filled by the board of administration, and it fixes the salaries for these offices.

The board of administration is subdivided into five coordinate departments—public affairs; revenue and finance; public safety; streets; public property and improvement; health and sanitation. The mayor is ex-officio head of the department of public affairs, and the board of councilors designates each of the other four commissioners to one of the remaining departments.

The councilors are nominated by petition, and elected every two years. The ballots used are free from any emblem, device or other indication of a political party.

The people have the power of recall over the councilors, and they exercise the same power over the members of

the board of administration. The referendum is compulsory on all matters involving franchises or public grants, and the people may initiate ordinances that the government fails or refuses to pass.

A third-class-cities commission government bill passed the senate on January 31, applies to cities of from 19,050 to 35,000 inhabitants, which would include Anderson, Elkhart, East Chicago, Hammond, Lafayette, Logansport, Marion, Muncie, Richmond and New Albany.

Kansas.—A bill favored by the Kansas municipal league, providing that candidates for city commissioner in cities that have adopted the city commission form of government shall declare for what particular places on the board of commissioners they are candidates for, has been recommended for passage in the house. A similar measure has been introduced in the senate.

Pennsylvania. Senator Henry A. Clark of Erie introduced on January 21 a bill which would give the privilege of adopting the commission form to cities of the third class. This measure retains the principal features of the one of similar import before the legislature in 1911 with the exception of the recall and the provisions which would legislate the present incumbents out of office. The bill has the backing of the Allied Civic Bodies of the third class cities. A second bill for third class cities introduced by Dr. Thomas A. Steel of McKeesport would establish a council of eleven members.

Ohio. Late in January the Municipal Association of Cleveland published a proposed bill providing three optional forms of organization which any city might adopt by referendum vote, including the federal plan, a commission plan and a city manager plan. This document was approved by a conference of the Ohio Municipal League on January 23.¹

Minnesota. Representative Kerry Conley of Rochester has introduced a bill to permit cities to adopt the city manager plan.

Missouri. A general bill which will, in fact, permit the cities of Joplin and Springfield to adopt the commission form has been introduced in the legislature and appears to excite no opposition.

New Mexico. Senator Barth's bill authorizes cities of 5000 or more inhabitants to initiate a local charter by popular election of a board of three freeholders, instituted on petition of voters equal in number to 25 per cent of the votes cast at the last preceding municipal election. The charter submitted by this body must be ratified by popular vote. This is an attempt to secure home rule by statute.

New York. The Municipal Government Association plans to introduce four bills in the legislature covering practically the whole field of fundamental municipal reform. One of these is a constitutional home rule amendment; a second is a non-partisan municipal elections act; third a municipal empowering act. The fourth would permit any city of the second or third classes to adopt any one of six simplified forms of organization.

North Dakota. By the provisions of a bill relating to elections upon the question of commission form of government, several cities which rejected the commission form in the past will have an opportunity to resubmit the question this spring.

Tennessee. A meeting of the mayors of Tennessee was held at Nashville on January 28 to draft a bill permitting all cities and towns to adopt the commission form of government. A bill of this character has been introduced in the legislature.

Texas. The general law allowing cities of under 10,000 population to adopt commission government is one of the most poorly drafted pieces of legislation imaginable. A bill passed in the Senate aims to clarify this law by giving

¹ Copies can be had of the Association, Engineers Building, Cleveland, O.

the cities definite powers as to police regulations, taxation, bonds, etc. and extends its provisions to all cities of over 2000 population.

Utah. Alleged dissatisfaction with the result of commission government in Ogden has inspired Senator Craig of that city to introduce a bill which would practically repeal the present commission government law, and substitute a system under which there would be a mayor with veto power popularly elected and a council elected from wards. Another bill introduced in the lower house by Representative Barnes of Salt Lake City provides for the recall of city officials, submission of all franchises to the people, the appointment of a civil service commission and an election commission. The bill would also increase the number of councilors to seventeen in cities of the first class, eleven in the second and nine in the third class, to be elected at large, in rotation. The mayor would be elected by this board. The adoption of the law would be optional with the cities.



Special Charters.—Besides the local movements specially mentioned below, active efforts to secure either special charters on the commission plan or charter amendments to that purpose have been begun in behalf of the following cities.

Douglas and Bisbee, Ariz.; San Diego, Cal., election February 27 fixing recall petitions at 25 per cent, making auditor and superintendent of streets charter officers), Meriden, Stratford and Middletown, Conn; Pensacola, Fla. (commission and semi-aldermanic forms submitted to popular vote February 25); St. Petersburg, Fla. (form of charter under discussion during February); Atlanta, Ga. (charter committee at work); Honolulu, H. T. (Governor Frear and others discussing commission and city manager plans); Chicago, Ill. (resolution passed by council provided for a committee of three to interview the mayor as to the

feasibility of a charter convention); Auburn, Me. (Progressives published form of commission government charter); Baltimore, Md. (City-wide Congress on January 3 accepted a report of its committee on municipal government recommending a charter which would provide for the short ballot, initiative and referendum and division of organic law into charter and code); Quincy, Somerville, Pittsfield, Lynn, Lowell, Cambridge, Worcester, Beverly, Brockton, Malden, Newburyport and Lawrence, Mass.; Saginaw, Mich. (charter reported by commission during January); Owosso, Mich. (charter commission asked to prepare charter with city manager plan); Battle Creek and Kalamazoo, Mich. (charters ready for submission); Nashua, N. H. (one of two forms of new proposed charter provides commission plan); Charlotte, N. C. (charter sent to legislature vests powers of city in mayor and two commissioners, subject to recall) Raleigh and Asheville, N. C. (legislature asked to pass commission government bills); Norman, Okla. (freeholder charter reported in January) Charleston, S. C. (commission government bill has been introduced in legislature); Fairmount, Clarksburg, Grafton, Sistersville, Piedmont, Cameron, St. Albans and Wheeling, W. Va. (commercial bodies are supporting commission government charters in the legislature); Kenosha Wis. (petitions for adoption of state law circulated during February).



The Ohio Movements.—The constitutional home rule amendment adopted is bearing abundant fruit. On February 4 elections were held in Cleveland, Youngstown and Coshocton on the question of calling local charter conventions and electing the requisite fifteen charter commissioners. In Coshocton only about a third of the vote was cast, and the proposition was defeated. In Cleveland the ticket nominated by Mayor Baker and including himself and

Prof. A. R. Hatton, was elected. This ticket is pledged to non-partisan elections, the short ballot, the merit system and the initiative and referendum.

In Dayton a number of commercial and civic bodies have been studying the several new types of city government. The city manager plan has in this city an unusual number of adherents. The Socialists have drafted a general plan calling for the election of a council from wards, a mayor and president of the council.

Charter elections have been called as follows: Akron, April 1; Salem, April 18; Marietta, April 22, Toledo, April 26; Middletown, May 6. Petitions for such action have been presented to the city councils in Springfield. In Columbus the question of a charter convention is unofficially but actively discussed.



The Denver Election.—On February 14 the city of Denver voted on four propositions; (1) for a charter convention to provide a commission form of government, (2) a popular initiative amendment providing a specific form of commission government, (3) preferential voting amendment, (4) an ordinance regulating telephone charges. All but the first of these propositions carried.

The adoption of the initiated commission form will have a unique and far reaching effect in that it will bring county as well as city departments under a single governing board. The traditional five members, an auditor and an election commissioner will be the only elective officers; the mayor will be selected by the commissioners from their own number. The commissioner of property, in addition to his municipal duties, will be county clerk and recorder of deeds. The commissioner of finance will perform the duties of county treasurer and assessor. The commissioner of safety will be sheriff as well as head of the police department. The commissioner of improvements will supersede the county surveyor. And the commissioner of

social welfare will perform the duties of county superintendent of schools and coroner. There will be no independent civil service commission.

The terms of the commissioners will expire in rotation, so that after 1915 not more than five city and county officers will be elected at any one time. If the recommendations of the governor and the retiring governor are followed, the short ballot principle will be applied to the state ticket, and Denver citizens, in place of what Judge Lindsay called "The Jungle" will have a ballot which for "shortness" can hardly be surpassed.



The Los Angeles Charter.—The adverse vote on the Los Angeles charter on December 3, 1912, is explained by the secretary of the charter commission chiefly on the grounds of insufficient publicity. The vote, especially of the women was unusually light. Apparently the Socialists voted with the "special interests" to defeat the new law. Immediately after the election the People's Charter Conference was organized with a view to getting amendments before the people in time for approval by the legislature. The conference has reported eight separate amendments, which purport to give the city increased power in the purchase and regulation of public utilities and the power of excess condemnation, when it shall be provided for by state law. The nine members of the council would each be designated, respectively, a committee of one to look after a division of the city's affairs. One amendment provides for a form of proportional representation in the council.



Philadelphia Suggestions.—Suggestions of fundamental changes in the composition of the city council of Philadelphia have been proposed by the Committee of Seventy and Clinton Rogers Woodruff. Both of these proposals would do away with the present bi-cameral system and substitute a council of

fifteen members elected at large. The Committee of Seventy calls attention to the great inequalities of representation which are inherent in the ward system and offers as a substitute a method of proportional representation by means of the single untransferable vote. Mr. Woodruff would incorporate the initiative, referendum and recall in the city charter as a method of controlling the council. Mayor Blankenburgh has put himself on record as favoring a council of fifteen members.



The Portland Situation.—Compromises have been effected in Portland between the opponents of the official commission government charter and the mayor by which the question will be resubmitted to the people May 3. The mayor conceded a number of amendments which were incorporated in the charter drafted by W. C. Benbow. The "short charter" mentioned in the last issue of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW was disapproved by both parties to the compromise.¹



Massachusetts Activity.—Representative Keenan of Lynn has introduced a bill by which that city would abandon commission government and return to the system of the mayor and eleven aldermen. Considerable dissatisfaction is expressed with the workings of the town meeting feature of the Lynn charter, but aside from this the instrument does not appear to be seriously defective.

An amendment to the city charter of Haverhill is being sought to eliminate the "bullet" voting that has prevailed since the change was made from a bicameral system to a commission form in 1908. Under the present system there are four candidates for the two aldermanic positions at the city elections and it has been possible for friends of a candidate to vote for him alone by cast-

ing a bullet vote, where they are allowed to vote for two or four candidates.

Two charters for Cambridge have been brought forward. The one prepared by Prof. L. J. Johnson of Harvard has again been introduced in the legislature. Another prepared by Representative Mahoney substitutes for the present council a single chamber of seventeen elected one from each ward and six at large. The administrative boards would be appointive by the Mayor.



Miscellaneous.—*Michigan:* The grand jury of Wayne County in January after bringing a number of indictments, severely criticized the common council and the school board of Detroit and recommended adoption of commission government, believing that it would attract a higher grade of men to the public service. *Oklahoma.* Charging that the commission form of government in Ardmore is undemocratic; that it is too expensive; that the city has gone into debt under the system, petitions are being circulated to abolish it and go back to the aldermanic form. *Arizona.* A commission government charter adopted in 1912 by Phoenix has been found to conflict with the constitution in a number of details, especially those relating to the initiative, referendum and recall. Governor Hunt has pointed out that there is no relief except in retracing the entire process of the charter convention. *Oregon.* A commission government charter adopted in Klamath Falls, on May 21, 1912, is in a state of litigation growing out of the apparent adoption of another charter of legislative origin, in February of the same year, and a confusion of elections.

H. S. GILBERTSON.¹



Duluth, Minn.—Having voted last December to adopt the commission form of government, it was proposed to the old city council that an expert should be

¹ See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. II, p. 118.

¹ Assistant secretary of The National Short Ballot Organization.

employed so that when the new government goes into effect in April, he might have ready diagrams for the organization of departments and for disposing of powers and duties on an efficiency bases.

The council shied at the word expert. The argument was used that "we had a perfectly good system of municipal accounting already and that it would not be fair to the new commission to tie their hands by a system prepared without consulting them. But the real reason was that we are tired of hearing about experts and by jinks we can do just as good a job of experting by our own common sense as any of these fellows with superhuman wisdom."

JOHN S. PARDEE.

*

New Municipal Program Committee.

—Ten years ago the National Municipal League adopted a municipal program on the recommendation of a committee of seven men who gave to the whole matter careful and thoughtful consideration during a period of upwards of two years. Since its adoption it has been a source of widespread influence, but the League has thought it desirable to have the recommendations of the report reëxamined,

and to that end a new committee has been authorized consisting of five members of the old committee and an equal number of new. The members of the former committee who will serve are: Horace E. Deming, Esq., New York City, author of *Government of American Cities*; Prof. Frank J. Goodnow, of Columbia University, and for a time a member of the President's commission on economy and efficiency; Hon. George W. Guthrie, former mayor of Pittsburgh, and now chairman of the Democratic state committee of Pennsylvania; Prof. L. S. Rowe, of the University of Pennsylvania; and Clinton Rogers Woodruff, secretary of the League and chairman of the board of registration commissioners of Philadelphia. The new men are: Richard S. Childs, secretary of The Short Ballot Organization; Prof. John A. Fairlie, of the University of Illinois, and author of several volumes dealing with municipal problems; M. N. Baker, editor of *Engineering News* and president of the Montclair board of health; Arthur C. Ludington, New York City; and the Hon. William Dudley Foulke, Richmond, Ind., president of the League, as chairman. This committee, which has been just completed, will shortly be at work on its assignment.

II. FUNCTIONS

Philadelphia's High-Cost-of-Living Program.—Can Philadelphia affect the cost of living?

Granting that many of the factors in the high cost of living are national or international, are some of them sufficiently local to be controlled by purposeful civic action on the part of the city?

Mayor Blankenburg is keenly interested in doing all he can to lower the cost of living, especially to the small householders and wage earners in Philadelphia. Accordingly he asked Morris L. Cooke, director of public works, to supervise the investigations necessary to determine whether or not anything could prof-

itably be done by the city, and if so, what steps had best be taken.

The director, one of the few men trained as efficiency engineers, to be appointed to important governmental positions, decided that the proper method of approaching the problem was to take a typical sample of each class of goods, on which the average householder spent a considerable portion of his income, and follow that sample from the earliest stage in its production until it finally reached the Philadelphian's table. To the author of this paper was given the task particularly of following the third of these costs—that of getting goods from the producer to the consumer.

Moreover, the goods under consideration were limited to farm produce grown in the counties surrounding Philadelphia.

The first step in the investigation was to find out just what was the increase in consumers' prices over producers' prices. From numerous and diverse sources were gathered the prices received by the farmer, by the jobber, by the wholesaler and by the retailer. These prices revealed that the increase of consumers' prices over producers' prices range from 73 to 105 per cent for butter; from 106 to 154 per cent for potatoes; from 67 to 173 per cent for eggs; from 114 to 166 per cent for huckleberries; from 150 to 200 per cent for blackberries; 266 per cent for live poultry; 167 per cent for corn, and 150 per cent for tomatoes. The percentage of increase in price due to transportation from the farm to the city ranged from 1 to 25 per cent of the price received by the farmer; the percentage of increase due to the jobber ranged from 6 to 36 per cent; the percentage of increase due to the wholesaler ranged from 11 to 22 per cent; while the percentage of increase of retailers' prices over wholesalers' prices ranged from 30 to 100 per cent. This last increase includes the high cost of distribution later to be discussed. By jobber is meant the country store-keeper or the huckster or traveling agent who buys direct from the farmer.

Products are brought from the farm to the city by water, wagon, steam rail, motor truck, and trolley freight. In each of these there is ample opportunity through proper governmental action for definitely increasing the efficiency of transportation and for lowering transportation costs.

Water transportation can be improved through the use of the motor boat. For the development of such transportation, Philadelphia's location is especially fortunate. The development of transportation by wagon will best be increased through improving inter-county roads. Related to the possibilities of this development will be the possibilities of sending farmers' produce into the city by

parcels post. The rates under the new law will be five cents for the first pound, within a radius of fifty miles, with a charge of one cent additional per pound until a maximum weight of eleven pounds is reached.¹ Farmers in the vicinity might ship some produce to Philadelphia consumers at these rates, but its greater use will be in getting the city's output directly to the farm. The efficiency in transportation by steam rail can be increased, if not by lowering the rates, certainly through better and quicker service. Transportation by motor trucks is in its infancy, and has most significant possibilities. Five trucks of one and one-half tons each can do the work of twenty horses, and still double the radius of action. With better inter-county roads, and with a well developed farming country, this method of transportation will no doubt play a large part in getting goods most economically and directly from the farmer to the city consumer.

It is in the development of trolley freight, however, that there are the greatest possibilities. Its extensive development would mean transportation facilities from every section of the city to each outlying hamlet, and would make it possible to bring it direct to the several parts of the city, country produce from the farms within a radius of thirty to fifty or more miles in every direction from the city. Such a development would in effect add about one thousand square miles to the territory upon which Philadelphia could depend for its country produce.

Along several of the trolley lines, the trolley freight service is in a fairly satisfactory condition. Along many others, however, such service is both inadequate and unsatisfactory. This unsatisfac-

¹ That is, these are the charges for the first 50 miles, the distance in which Philadelphia is especially interested. The law further provides that the rates will increase through eight zones, varying from 50 to 1800 or more miles, the charge for the first pound for the greatest distance being twelve cents.—C. L. K.

tory condition is due in the main to three reasons: (a) the difference in gauge or in wheel specifications so that through freight cars cannot be run into the city; (b) want of proper traffic agreements; (c) want of interest in certain of the outlying trolley lines in the development of trolley freight.

About the same situation now exists with certain trolley lines that existed in the decade or two preceding the Civil War with certain railroad lines; that is, they have been built on a different gauge or with different wheel specifications. The result is that freight must be transferred from car to car. This leads to loss in time and damage to freight, both of which are most objectionable to the shipper and cause added costs to the consumer. This condition can be remedied on some lines, a few lines contemplate changes in gauge, but with a couple of lines the only solution at present seems to be to provide for a quick, inexpensive and careful transfer.

Trolley freight is blocked on other outlying lines because of the want of proper traffic agreements, either between two or more of the outlying companies, or between one or more of these companies and the Philadelphia Rapid Transit Company. However, the Philadelphia Rapid Transit Company is deeply interested in developing its freight traffic and has not, therefore, been a leading obstacle in the making of reasonable traffic agreements.

Often the leading reason for the want of proper traffic agreements is the desire of certain of the lines to pay good dividends on highly watered stock. This situation thus far has led, in all too many instances, to unreasonable rates and poor service. The situation points to the need of a state public service commission with plenary powers over capitalization, service and rates. Philadelphia consumers and the outlying farmers would then have a tribunal which could give them facts upon which to base a sane policy, and before which they could

go to demand reasonable service and rates.

A third reason for the unsatisfactory condition of the trolley freight service lies in the want of interest in trolley freight by certain of the outlying electric companies. It is only in recent years that trolley lines have seen the value or have been allowed to develop the possibilities of trolley freight. Too often this development has been held up by restrictive legislation fathered by other transportation concerns, or by local jealousies and inter-town controversies.

However, most of the lines centering in the city are now willing to develop through freight service. The few that are not can be reached after such freight has proved to be a paying investment on other lines.

There are significant possibilities also in the development of trolley freight over the lines in New Jersey, Delaware and Maryland.

Another reducible cost in getting farm produce into the city is due to an antiquated system of taxation. The state's mercantile tax, which ranges from \$2.50 to \$11 per year for farmers selling produce other than their own, and the city's vendor's license fee, which amounts to \$10 for one horse, or \$15 for two horses, do not have to be paid by farmers who bring into the city and sell their own produce. This provision was adequate at the time the law was passed, about 1840, for then the farmers who lived more than a day's drive from the city had little motive to bring their produce to Philadelphia. Today, however, the most valuable fruit and produce growing sections are within thirty to sixty miles from the city. It is unprofitable for any farmer living out that far to drive to the city in order to sell his own produce solely. The result of these taxes and licenses, therefore, is to compel the farmer to sell his produce to some one else, and thus make necessary the increase in prices due both to the jobber and the wholesaler. If these statutes

and ordinances could be so amended as to allow any farmer or gardener cultivating his own farm or garden to secure a permit, after inspection by a city official, at a cost of not more than 50 cents, and to sell without added fees or taxes not only his own produce but the produce of any farmer with a like permit, the cost of farm produce would be greatly reduced.

Another cumulative element in the cost of farm produce is the city's inefficient and outgrown distribution system. The reports on prices received from each of the wards of the city indicate very clearly the relations between the distance from freight terminals and the prices paid by consumers. The wards paying high prices had long hauls; the wards reporting medium high prices had medium long hauls; the wards with medium low prices had medium short hauls; and the wards reporting low prices had short hauls. There is here a definite social waste. This waste is increased by the fact that there is a double haul in many instances. Thus farmers from beyond the 41st ward drive over ten miles, through the 41st ward, to Dock Street and Vine Street commission merchants; the goods are purchased here by a retailer who carts them back again to the 41st ward—a useless twenty-mile haul. In all sections of the city there is a double cartage of this character. The result is an unnecessary and very large increase in the cost of consumers' prices. Moreover, the transportation methods used are often costly and largely antedated. To a large extent transportation is still carried on by horse-drawn vehicles at a cost of 25 to 50 cents per ton mile. Motor trucks for distribution are as yet not so extensively used as in other cities, say New York, where there are over 2000 such motor trucks in use.

A distribution system that would best conserve the interests of the farmers in the outlying counties, whether they vend on the streets, or sell to the wholesaler or retailer, that would best conserve the interests of the retailers in every section of the city, who care

to buy direct from farmers, that would best further the interests of the consumers, is the development of trolley terminals. There are in the city at the present time but three trolley freight terminals. The development of such terminals would also make it possible for manufacturers and stores in each section of the city to send goods to the outlying stores and consumers without the added cartage costs that now have to be paid, would increase the number of farmers that come to the city, and increase the type of business now characteristic of the Washington Hotel. About sixty-five farmers, from twenty-two agricultural districts, ship their produce to the 11th and Huntingdon Street station, then remain over night at this hotel, and the next day hire teams from the proprietor and vend their goods on routes in the city. With adequate terminal facilities, the farmers could sell not only in this way but at the markets or to the retailers directly. This would eliminate the costs due to at least two classes of middlemen. Such a distributing system would also prevent great waste due to the decay of perishable products and fruit. At the present time such goods are often two or three days in transit from the farmer to the retailer or the consumer. This waste could be very definitely decreased through a more facile distributing system.

Another unnecessary element in the cost of farm produce is the existence of certain abuses which undermine the faith of the farmer in Philadelphia markets, and the faith of the consumer both in farmers' markets and in the goods bought from retail stores. Many of these abuses can be eliminated through proper ordinances and statutes. Thus an ordinance could be passed forbidding the use of farmers' signs by those not bona fide farmers. This abuse today is outrageously common in certain of the city's markets. Ordinances could also most stringently regulate the existing markets. The city could create a bureau of weights and measures, and thus protect both

the farmer and the consumer. It could use its influence to get a statute compelling wholesalers to file bonds with a designated state official, conditioned upon performing their services faithfully, and upon the reporting of goods in the condition in which they are actually received, and the payment to farmers of the money properly due them. There are at present all too many abuses along these lines. A state statute could provide that cold storage eggs should be clearly marked as such. Such a statute would protect the consumer and would, in all probability, have the same effect as the oleomargarine statute—the development of the cold storage business, and the protection of the honest dealer.

Another step that the city could take to reduce costs on farm produce is to establish a wholesale market and retail markets in those sections of the city where retail markets may prove to be needed.

In the city are two dozen markets, two of which are municipally owned. None of these is now administered primarily with the thought of bringing consumer and producer together. Most of them are no longer markets in the old sense of the word, but are simply groups of professional retailers. The establishment of a wholesale market or a farmers' market, coupled with thorough regulation of existing markets, would no doubt have a wholesome effect on consumers' prices. In several cities of the United States, such markets have not only lowered prices, but have been of financial profit to the city. The New York market commission urges that a terminal, wholesale market for New York City will relieve congestion in several parts of the city, provide a conspicuous place for producers to send to, provide an economic stand so that they can sell cheaper, make it possible for licensed gardeners and farmers to sell their articles of food, permit segregation of live poultry, provide better refrigeration and storage facilities, reduce the cost of distribution, provide sanitary

conditions for handling food stuffs, provide for a storage of food in time of plenty, eliminate two classes of middlemen between producer and consumer, and put the control of the food supply under public authority. Such a wholesale house, coupled with the transportation and distribution system outlined above, would, no doubt, be of great value in making for a better and greater Philadelphia, and for lowering food costs to every consumer therein.

To the author's mind, far more important than the establishment of municipal markets, is the establishment of the transportation facilities into and out of the city, as described above, the development of distributing facilities and trolley freight terminals within the city, and the stringent regulation of municipal markets, weights and measures, and commission men.

The carrying out of these proposals will definitely affect consumers' prices. The development of a network of a facile, accessible transportation and distributing system, coupled with the measures indicated above, will encourage the farmer to come into the city; will make it possible for the farmer to go around one or two sets of middlemen; will save cartage costs to the farmer, and, therefore, to the consumer; will save time to the farmer, and, therefore, increase his output; will give better prices to the farmer, and, therefore, encourage him to grow fruits and produce especially needed in Philadelphia; will focus his attention upon produce and fruit rather than upon the staple products that can better be grown in Kansas and Nebraska; will fasten his attention to packing and sorting, and thus save food waste through decay; will shorten the time from the farm to the city table, and thus give fresher goods with a decreased loss through deterioration; will extend the bounds of economic possibilities in each agricultural district; will enhance the facilities through which the outlying stores and smaller towns can more economically handle their freight both

from and into Philadelphia; will give to the retail stores a lessened transportation charge; will give to Philadelphia's manufacturing establishments and stores increased facilities for sale; will make possible the elimination of one or two classes of middlemen, without any serious injury to their business; will give to Philadelphia consumers fresher produce, and will materially lower prices.

Philadelphia can lower the cost of living to her citizens.

CLYDE L. KING.

✱

Municipal Utilities. *The National Civic Federation* department in charge of the inquiry into the regulation of public utilities is nearing the end of its work. One of the achievements is the compilation of all existing regulatory laws, analyzed and annotated. This is a task of extreme value and convenience to every person at all interested in the regulation of public service corporations.

The department has also drawn up a model public utilities law, has made special reports on the regulation of capitalization, the sliding scale method, and profit sharing, and has made a careful study of state versus municipal regulation. The sliding scale principle was a subject of special inquiry in England. Particular attention was also given in the English investigation to methods employed in the regulation of capital issues and in the public audit of companies. The plan of selling stock at auction was also examined in detail. The report of the English investigation will constitute a valuable addition to the literature on the subject.

Court decisions have been examined and compiled. A careful line was drawn between decisions which involved merely the application of the statutes and decisions which interpreted the language of the statutes.

The inquiry is in charge of Prof. John H. Gray. For the consideration of the various parts of the proposed model bill, the activities of the department were

divided among the following committees: Accounts and reports, capitalization, form, franchises, rates, safety of operation, service.

The Geary Street Municipal Railway of San Francisco, was opened for business on December 28, 1912. The road at present has $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles of track, built at a cost of \$139,000 a mile. \$1,900,000 was voted in bonds for building the road from Kearny Street to the Ocean. The bonds were sold for \$1,902,341.50, of which \$842,376.26 still remains in the treasury. Of this sum about \$400,000 will be called for in order to complete the extension to the beach and meet the outstanding contracts.

The contest for the municipal operation of the Geary Street road began as far back as 1896 when the corporation then in control of the cable road on Geary Street attempted to secure a fifty-year franchise seven years before their existing franchise expired. This was defeated through legal proceedings and much agitation, as were other subsequent attempts. Several efforts to secure a bond issue for the reconstruction of the cable road as a municipally owned electric line proved unsuccessful, as, in the three attempts made, a majority vote, but not the requisite two-thirds vote, was secured. Finally, in December, 1909, the proposition carried by a vote of three to one.

The new road is but the beginning of a municipal system. Plans are underway to connect the Geary Street road with the Union Street road by two cross town lines. These cross town lines will furnish the necessary transportation to the grounds of the Panama Pacific International Exposition. It is expected that they will be completed sometime next year.

New York Electrical Rates. William D. Marks, consulting engineer of New York City, has issued a special report on the electricity rates of New York City. He claims that the rates for small consumers are inconsistently too large. His report gives tables and other data comparing a service scale of rates with a

commodity scale of rates. He feels that the commodity scale of rates is not fair even when figured out carefully, but if used, may be consistently applied under the assumption that increased sales require an increased plant. His statistics and diagrams reveal the fact that under the New York Edison Company's monthly power rates, all consumers using more than about 25 kw. hours per month are charged inconsistently high rates. They also reveal the fact that from 100,000 to 200,000 kw. hours, the rate is inconsistently high, and that it is consistently fixed only when 200,000 kw. hours is reached, and after that runs below a consistent profit until at 833,333 kw. hours commodity cost is reached at 3 cents per kw. hour. He contends that there is no consistent or rational or practical method underlying the random quantitative rates approved by New York City's public service commission, and that those rates rob the great multitude of small consumers and secure no profits from the large consumers.

In 1910, the New York Edison Company's profits were \$7,366,864.39. In the writer's opinion, a fair profit would not have exceeded \$4,800,000. He feels that the public service commission should establish rational and practical rates, giving citizens of New York the benefit of the difference of \$2,500,000 and preventing future extortion. He also holds that the commission should have adhered to a tested and practically fair system until some equally rational and simpler system than the "discarded" public service rate giving even profits to the producer was presented.

San Francisco in June of last year established by ordinance rates for water, gas and electricity. The water rates were based upon the ground surface for buildings occupied by a single family, with special regulations as to flats and houses occupied by two or more families. There are also special rates for bath tubs, horses, cows, boarding and lodging houses, irrigation, private gardens, building purposes, business houses, fire

pipes, etc. All other water is to be furnished at meter rates. Another ordinance fixed the maximum rate and price to be charged for illuminating power of gas at 75 cents per 1000 cubic feet, with 8 cents per lamp per night for incandescent gas lamps. The maximum rate and price to be charged by any person, company or corporation for furnishing electricity for heat and power purposes to the city and county of San Francisco were also fixed.

Chicago Telephone Rates. A detailed, exhaustive report has been submitted by Prof. Edward W. Bemis, to the committee on gas, oil and electric light of the Chicago council, upon the earnings, expenses, valuation and rates of the Chicago Telephone Company. This is the third report to be made on telephone rates and service in large cities. The first was made in 1909-10 by the Massachusetts highways commission for Boston and its suburbs; the second for Maryland in 1911 by the Maryland public service commission. The Wisconsin railroad commission and the New Jersey public utilities commission have made several investigations of telephone rates in smaller places, but these have little bearing on conditions in large cities.

Professor Bemis's report, therefore, has special significance. He finds that a reasonable valuation of the physical property of the company within the city of Chicago alone is \$32,259,947, while for city and suburban property it is \$42,290,562. The average plant investment, including land but not the working capital of all Bell companies, was, in 1911, \$638,830,314. As a result of his studies in valuation, depreciation, operating and maintenance expenses and dividends, he concludes that the company should make a reduction of \$700,000 annually in its charges within the city. He shows that this can be done and still reduce the dividends paid by the company only from 8 to 7.1 per cent.

One of the most interesting facts brought out in the report is that main-

tenance costs have not increased in the same proportion as operating costs. There is a universal belief that the greater the number of telephones, the higher the maintenance charge. From 1891 to 1893 inclusive, the ratio of maintenance and reconstruction to average investments was 9.38; for the three years 1910 to 1912, inclusive, it was 7.39. For the five year period from 1891 to 1895, inclusive, the ratio was 9.78; for the five year period, ending with and including 1912, it was 7.77. Prolonging the trend line to 1917, the ratio would be 7.2 in 1917 as compared with 7.5 in 1912, or an average of 7.35 for the coming five years.

The author recommends a city telephone bureau to receive all complaints from customers and take them up promptly with the company. The company would then be spurred on by public approval to improve its services.

The reason for the issuance of the report was that under the franchise of 1907, Chicago's council has the right to fix new telephone rates every five years. The first city ordinance fixing telephone rates in a city of any size was the Chicago ordinance of 1907.

Memphis, following a disagreement as to rates and franchise privileges with the local public utility companies, is considering a plan to vote the requisite amount of municipal bonds to establish a heating and lighting plant owned by the city.

Local vs. State Regulation of Municipal Utilities. Governor Deneen of Illinois in his annual message for 1913 recommends the creation of two public utilities commissions for the state of Illinois and the city of Chicago, respectively. His reasons for feeling that the greatest advantage to the people would accrue from the creation of two commissions are, first, that home rule as a principle should be "conserved as far as possible in all governmental activities," and second, that "the public utilities problems of Chicago are so great and so complex as to require the entire attention of such a body of experts." He feels that the

efficiency of the state commission would be impaired by any other limitation of their authority by city lines. In this same connection it is interesting to note that at a recent meeting of the League of Washington Municipalities, a fight was started by representatives of Seattle and Spokane upon the public utilities commission of the state because of its tendency to hamper the local governments in dealing with local problems.

Street Control in Canada. At the request of Toronto, the Union of Canadian Municipalities appointed a delegation to appear before Premier Borden, to ask the government for remedial legislation in the matter of the control of streets and roads by the municipalities. The different members of the committee advanced evidence to show that many municipalities had suffered from the want of this legislation, and urged that the adopted statute should cover any and every company, including those already incorporated. The delegation agreed with the proposition that, failing to receive the consent of the municipality, the board of railway commissioners of Canada should have jurisdiction. Mr. Borden assured the Committee that the matter would receive the early consideration of the Cabinet.



Local vs. State Regulation of Municipal Utilities.—At the recent meeting of the officials of the commission governed cities in Illinois, resolutions were adopted opposing the granting of power to any state board, commission, or officer, to control or regulate the operation or rates or services of any public utility except upon the invitation of the local authorities. The sentiment throughout Illinois in other than official ranks seems to, be equally strong in the same direction.

Eighty Cent Gas in Philadelphia.—In his campaign for election, Rudolph Blankenburg, Mayor of Philadelphia, pledged himself to obtain 80-cent gas. In his New Year's letter of January 1, 1913, the mayor, in reviewing the accom-

plishments of the first year under his administration, pointed out the great economies and savings that had been made and stated:

I at last feel able to redeem my pledge, made during the mayoralty campaign, to ask of councils a reduction of the price of gas from one dollar per thousand cubic feet to eighty cents per thousand cubic feet. . . . This desirable reduction in the price of gas has been made possible by practical and rational economies instituted in all departments, without affecting their efficiency.

In the same letter, however, he pointed out the necessity for increased resources for making improvements in streets, highways, sewers, etc., that were essential to the city's welfare. These, he pointed out, would require an increased income of about eight and one-half million per year. He made at this and other times, definite recommendations as to how the city's income could be increased. The city also needs from sixty to eighty million dollars to carry out necessary improvements in wharves, docks, subways, boulevards, civic centers and other municipal improvements.

Soon after the New Year recommendation was made, councils passed an ordinance providing for 80-cent gas, beginning January 1, 1913, but failed to take any steps toward increasing the city's resources. The mayor, therefore, felt it necessary to veto the bill and thus continue dollar gas until after other avenues for municipal resources have been obtained. He has thus far been opposed to increasing the rates on real estate, but is looking about for new sources of revenue.

The contract with the United Gas Improvement Company, approved in December, 1907, leasing the city's gas works to that company until December 31, 1927, provided that the price of gas should be \$1 per 1000 cubic feet, and that councils could, by ordinance, reduce the price of gas to any point not below the following: until December 31, 1907, 90 cents; from 1908 to 1912, inclusive, 85 cents; from 1913 to 1917, inclusive, 80

cents; from 1918 to 1927, inclusive, 75 cents. The price thus far has been kept up to \$1, and the difference between that price and the prices above noted has, in accordance with the lease, gone into the city treasury. The returns therefrom for 1913 were estimated at \$1,750,000.



Cost of Gas. One of the fundamental questions in all communities where the price of illuminating gas is under consideration is the relative proportion of cost for each of the items in its manufacture and distribution. In a city whose consumption approached 100,000,000 feet of gas a year, the different cost items in the operation of the gas plant were as follows: For manufacturing gas and placing it in the holder, 31½ cents per 1000; for distributing it from the holder to the consumer's meter, 20 cents; for management and general operating expenses, 33 cents; to afford a return of around 6 percent on the value of the property, 30 cents. This does not include profit to the owners, and includes depreciation only in so far as depreciation was included in the amounts expended during the current year for repairs.

These relative costs would vary in different localities. In the above figures coal was taken at \$3.20 per 2000 pounds. There was a good market for coke and power at fair, but not extreme, prices. Thus these figures represent fairly well the relative costs of the different items which have to be considered in supplying gas to consumers under these conditions.

CLYDE L. KING.¹



Frank Putnam's Report to the City of Houston, Texas.—In the recent report of Frank Putnam, special commissioner of the city of Houston, Texas, to examine the administration of European cities there is much that is of interest both as regards the findings and as regards the

¹ Of the University of Pennsylvania and editor *The Regulation of Municipal Utilities* in the National Municipal League Series.

recommendations he bases on these findings.

One fact that makes Mr. Putnam's report of general interest is that it is the result of investigations, hurried and superficial as they necessarily were through lack of time for the accomplishment of the desired purpose, not by a technically trained student of city government but by a trained observer who has the newspaper man's insight and oversight enabling him to grasp almost at a glance the salient objective facts. Hence instead of indulging in theoretical discussions about the legal relations between the government and the people, the relation of the various organs of government to each other, or the method of state control, Mr. Putnam's chief interest lay in seeing just what the European cities he visited were actually doing in the business of local government and what suggestions could be obtained from their manner of doing business for our own city governments, especially of course for the city of Houston whose commissioner he was.

Mr. Putnam visited in the six months he was engaged in the task, two cities in Ireland, two in England, Paris, and a number of large cities in Germany. His general findings, condensed in his report from the weekly letters sent by him to Texas newspapers, were in brief as follows:

He found that municipal taxes were from 25 to 100 per cent higher in those cities than in Houston. He found the ordinary public services such as water supply, paving and drainage in admirable condition and a very general ownership of tramways, electric light and gas plants, with a marked tendency to increase the public ownership of these ordinary public utilities as well as of such municipal undertakings as markets, housing, play-grounds, baths, etc. This is especially noticeable in Germany where the municipal savings banks are an important feature of public activity, as well as employment bureaus and the abolition of slums.

The continuity and relatively long terms of the city officers, especially of the trained professional officials, was a striking feature to Mr. Putnam and particularly the methods of getting mayors and other professional officials for the German cities. Of special interest to the city of Houston were Mr. Putnam's findings with regard to the undertakings of European cities, in the building and maintenance of great harbors, for Houston hopes at some time to become a seaport of the first rank. But of more general interest to all American cities was the account of the great care and large sums expended in the matter of city planning.

Among the recommendations Mr. Putnam makes to the city of Houston as a result of his trip abroad there are some that are of local interest only, but there are others that might as well be directed to a host of other American cities, always remembering that Houston is a city of somewhat less than a hundred thousand inhabitants operating under the commission form of government.

Mr. Putnam recommends an increase of salary from \$4000 to \$10,000 for the mayor, with a lengthening of the term from two to four or six years. The four commissioners should be allowed to engage in other business, in order to secure competent men who cannot afford to give up their regular business as they are now required to do. Their terms should be lengthened to four years, one to be elected each year in order to secure continuity of policy. The commissioners instead of acting as the heads of the city departments should constitute a board for framing policies, making the mayor actual head of the administration under whom technical experts, appointed on merit during good behaviour should carry on the detailed administration.

Mr. Putnam's advocacy of the initiative, referendum and recall is certainly not inspired by his European experience but is probably a necessary concession to the extreme democracy of his section

of the country. Even at that, however, he puts the percentage of voters required for a recall petition at 30 per cent of the number voting at the last election, which is higher than that found in the usual commission charters.

Mr. Putnam recommends municipal ownership and operation of the gas and electrical lighting systems as well as of the street railways, as soon as the borrowing power of the city can be increased meanwhile advocating an increase in the tax rate for municipal improvements. He recommends the creation of a city planning commission to take into account the future growth of Houston, the creation of a free municipal employment bureau, the establishment of public baths, the creation of a municipal slaughter house, and the building of public comfort stations. In addition to all this Mr. Putnam urges an enormous undertaking for making Houston one of the great harbor cities of this country.

Surely this is an interesting and far-seeing plan for a pioneer city of 100,000 and if Mr. Putnam's recommendations are acted upon the development may well be watched with interest by other American cities whose present conditions are at least as sorely in need of improvement as are those of the prosperous city of Houston.

HERMAN G. JAMES.¹



Police News.—Civilian Deputy. The board of aldermen of Chicago have passed an ordinance providing for a civilian second deputy superintendent of police with a view to increasing the efficiency of the department by the introduction of new blood into the staff. The members of the uniformed force united in their open opposition to the legislation which they feared would lead to the introduction of a spy system detrimental to efficiency.

Three Platoon System. Director of

Public Safety Porter of Philadelphia has introduced tentatively a three platoon system of patrol in that city. Under this system the policemen patrol eight hours on the street, are eight hours in reserve in the station house, and are at home for eight hours. Although the three platoon system requires the appointment of more policemen, it increases the individual efficiency of each man, by shortening his hours of service on patrol.

Single Commissioner System. Eliot Watrous, of New Haven, has introduced into the board of aldermen of that city a bill substituting a single police commissioner for the present antiquated bipartisan board of six police commissioners. Although Mr. Watrous's plan is absolutely correct from a scientific and from a practical point of view, the political situation in New Haven renders it extremely doubtful whether his bill will be enacted into law this year.

Perjury. In refusing to suspend from duty several Chicago policemen pending their trial on charges of perjury, preferred by the civil service commission, Chief of Police McWeeny is reported by the Chicago Inter Ocean to have made this statement: "Perjury is not a heinous crime. A policeman who commits perjury is not particularly dangerous to the community." The charge is frequently made in courts of justice that policemen are prone to swear falsely on the witness stand. It is believed that this charge is unfounded in fact and that policemen do not as a class have a lower regard for the sanctity of their oath than citizens in general. These quoted words of Chief McWeeny should arouse conscientious citizens however in an endeavor to raise the regard in which the oath is held at present, not only by policemen but by the public in general. Perjury is a heinous crime in every case, and especially in the case of a police officer.

*New York Annual Report.*¹ The an-

¹ Of The School of Government, University of Texas.

¹ See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW vol. I., p 167.

nual report of the New York police department for 1912 contains the following statistics:

Felony complaints.....	46,178
Felony arrests.....	18,780
Felony convictions.....	5,404

From these statistics the following indices may be deduced.

Complaint—arrest index of police activity.....	41
Arrest—conviction index of police efficiency.....	28
Complaint—conviction index of efficiency of police protection.....	11

United Police of Chicago. At the request of the board of Aldermen, the Chicago civil service commission recently conducted an investigation of the "United Police of Chicago," an organization composed of members of the Chicago police department. The civil service commission found that this organization was formed ostensibly for the protection of police officers from liability arising from the honest performance of police duty, that it has been perniciously active in politics, that it collected a large sum of money for purposes of bribery, and that this money was misappropriated by one of its officers. After discussing the history and activities of the United Police in detail, the report of the civil service commission recommends that the organization of an association similar to the United Police of Chicago be prohibited and that the city of Chicago undertake to defend those police officers who may be subjected to civil suits, criminal prosecution or charges before the trial board, resulting from the discharge of their official duties. The report which was prepared by James Miles, efficiency examiner of the Chicago civil service commission, is a very interesting and instructive document for those who are professionally or theoretically interested in police administration.

LEONHARD FELIX FULD.

A New Police Brigade in Paris.—The night dangers of Paris have led to the organization of a special independent night brigade of police, but coöperating closely with the regular force. This force will have a uniform of its own, and will be armed with revolvers and night sticks. Each man will have a police dog trained to pull down anyone running, and to hold him until called off by the policeman. These dogs, largely bred in Belgium, are as a rule a cross between the wolf and the European sheep dog. It has therefore become a good deal of a risk for a night wayfarer in a Paris street to run for a distant cab. He is likely to be startled by one of these swift animals darting out from a dark corner and leaping for him, unless arrested by the sharp call of the policeman.

✱

Accounting Notes.¹—*How Fargo Declared Dividends.* When Fargo, North Dakota, recently declared a taxpayer's dividend of \$10,000, newspapers throughout the country printed the news—many of them with comments or editorials. That most of the latter were written by persons unfamiliar with municipal finance, and also the facts in this particular case, was evident.

When properly understood, the situation in Fargo at budget making time was no different from that in almost any other city. When the 1913 departmental budget estimates were added up, it was found that it would cost \$146,561 to conduct the government for the next year. Now, instead of levying a direct tax for this amount, what did the city fathers do? They did exactly what should be done by city fathers everywhere, and what is done in practically every city. They estimated the amount of miscellaneous revenues which would accrue to the city during the next year, the total

¹ Is your city installing new accounts? The author of these "accounting notes" would appreciate the receipt from officials, research and efficiency bureaus, reference bureaus, accounting firms, etc. of all items of news pertaining to this subject.

of which they found would probably amount to \$12,000. Just as every other city when determining the amount which must be raised by taxation deducts the estimated miscellaneous revenues, so did Fargo. That is, they deducted from their budget of expenditures \$10,000 of the estimated \$12,000. Thus far, the procedure had been ordinary every-day municipal finance and absolutely sound, but at this point someone saw an opportunity for an advertising display, and Fargo, being comparatively small and somewhat removed, succeeded in "putting it over." So the word was sent out that Fargo had declared a dividend of \$10,000, or the equal of 6 per cent on the entire tax levy for the year. Under the attractive headlines it was explained that the dividend was to be paid from a surplus which the city by its thrift had managed to accumulate—not from the taxpayers, but in a commercial way, the same as a private corporation. Most of the news items, however, failed to state that the "commercial undertakings" which enabled the city to accumulate the \$12,000 surplus were based entirely on its governmental power to levy imposts and make police regulations. In fact, the "estimated \$12,000 surplus" comprised taxes on gross earnings of utility companies, licenses, dog taxes, and police court fines.

The use of the term "dividends" in connection with this transaction is not only incorrect but misleading. If by reducing the total tax levy by the amount of the estimated miscellaneous revenues the city of Fargo is declaring a dividend, then practically every city in the United States declares a dividend to its taxpayers every year. This device rings false, and so does the statement of an auditing company, noted in these columns in the January issue, that the city of Spartanburg, South Carolina, had made a "profit" of \$11,983 during 1912.

Modern Accounting for Pittsburgh. No better illustration of the present demand for accurate and complete municipal accounts is afforded than in Pitts-

burgh. After administering the city comptroller's office for more than twenty five years and after passing his sixty-fifth birthday, Comptroller E. S. Morrow within the last year began a thorough revision of the city's accounting and auditing system. On coming to a realization that his accounts actually meant nothing to the public at large, he deliberately turned his back on the precedents of years and began the new installation. The work accomplished thus far has been done by H. S. Breitenstein and others of his own staff with the coöperation of the New York bureau of municipal research and Comptroller Prendergast of New York City.

The installation thus far completed includes the introduction into the general ledger of funding accounts, registration of open market orders and contract liabilities. A study of revenue control methods has been commenced which, it is intended, shall lead to the establishment of accounting and auditing control over both revenue accruals and receipts. A property appraisal has also been authorized, and it is contemplated that by the end of the present year a complete capital balance sheet can be produced.

How the Universities are Helping. The municipal reference bureau of the extension division of the University of Kansas has recently compiled a table showing the bonded indebtedness, assessed valuation and tax levy of each of the eight first class and 31 second class cities of that state for the year 1912. Similar bureaus have been established at Harvard, the University of Wisconsin, and other universities and are proving of much value both to the students and to the public.

Milwaukee's Bureau Reestablished. During the last quarter the bureau of efficiency and economy of the city of Milwaukee has been rejuvenated. The old bureau lapsed or went out of business at the close of the recent socialist administration of that city. In reestablishing it on a firmer basis the mayor and council have taken a most commend-

able step. Ralph Bowman, of the New York training school for public service, has been made director of the new bureau.

Surveys of Springfield and Waterbury. During the past quarter the New York bureau of municipal research made preliminary surveys of the organization, accounting and business methods of the cities of Springfield, Mass. and Waterbury, Conn. Both surveys were financed by public-spirited citizens in the respective cities.

Uniform System for New York's Cities. State Comptroller Sohmer of New York and his accounting staff have been engaged for several months in devising a uniform system of accounts for second class cities in New York. The details of the systems have been practically all worked out and the comptroller's office is ready to install the system upon request. This is the same plan which has been followed by Director Gettemy of the Massachusetts bureau of statistics, the board of public affairs in Wisconsin, and similar bureaus in Ohio, Indiana, Iowa and other states. Readers who desire further information regarding Comptroller Sohmer's system are referred to an article in the February number of the *Journal of Accountancy* by John J. Magilton, auditor to the comptroller.

Describes Method of Collecting Taxes. The General Manifold Printing Company of 30 Church Street, New York, has issued a descriptive pamphlet of the new method of making tax collections, recently installed in the cities of New York and Buffalo. It is sent free upon request.

HERBERT R. SANDS.¹



Standing Room in Portland.—Portland, Oregon, has passed an ordinance providing that no passenger who has to stand shall be required to pay more than 3 cents for a full fare ride or 2½ cents for tickets bought in quantities of one hun-

dred. Persons paying only 3 cents are entitled to transfers, and to all the privileges of a regular passenger. The city has also fixed by ordinance a 50-cent minimum monthly charge for each consumer of gas or electricity. Neither ordinance has as yet been enforced for the reason that the Portland Railway, Light and Power Company has secured an injunction against the city restraining their enforcement. However, the gas company has already reduced its minimum rate to 50 cents. The city is expecting that the temporary injunction will not be made a permanent one.



Mayor Henry J. Arnold, of Denver, has vetoed a light ordinance, the primary purpose of which was to prohibit discrimination in distributing or selling electric current for lighting purposes, and prohibiting the granting of rebates, drawbacks, refunds or discounts to any consumers and users except to charitable institutions. The mayor vetoed the ordinance primarily on the ground that it would practically close every advertising lighting feature in the main streets of the city and would prohibit the company from making any donations of light or service for any convention or public gathering brought to Denver. He agreed to draw up a bill that would give reasonable regulations and yet be satisfactory both to the consumer and to the city's various civic and commercial organizations.



Des Moines Waterworks.—Des Moines has taken over the waterworks under public ownership. The price was determined by a court of three district judges appointed by the supreme court of the state upon the application of the city. This court is in fact simply a selected condemnation jury and the proceedings are in every way parallel to those before the ordinary sheriff's jury, except for the unusual character of this particular jury. This proceeding is in

¹ Certified public accountant, with New York bureau of municipal research.

accordance with a special Iowa statute on the acquisition of public utilities by cities. The local water company and the city have been in a contention over rates and regulations for a great many years. Meantime, the franchise of the company has expired and the people decided by an overwhelming vote that the proper solution is public ownership.



Los Angeles Municipal Cement Production.—The production of cement by the city of Los Angeles in connection with the construction of the city aqueduct furnishes an unusual phase of municipal activity. The city has been operating four cement mills, three of which are devoted to the manufacture of modified or tufa cement, obtained by grinding tufa with pure cement. Up to June 30, 1912 the mills had turned out 711,190 barrels of pure cement and 227,486 barrels of modified or tufa cement. Owing to the failure of the aqueduct bureau, under which the mills are operated, to take uniformly into account all elements, various figures have been given in the monthly statements of the bureau as to the cost of production, leading to incorrect and conflicting quotations of figures; but according to City Auditor Myers who has made an exhaustive examination of the cost of the city cement production, the pure cement averaged \$2.485 per barrel and the tufa, \$1.38, allowing in both instances for depreciation, interest on money invested and insurance.



A Municipal Dairy.—The city of Cleveland has purchased a great tract of two thousand acres (more than three square miles of land) absorbing twenty-five farms. This tract is two and one-half miles long and more than a mile wide. Upon this vast area are four separate enterprises. The Colony Farm for the almshouse people, the Overlook Farm

for the tuberculosis patients, the Correction Farm for the House of Correction prisoners, the Highland Park Farm for the development of a great municipal cemetery. The whole tract, named by the city council "The Cooley Farms" after Harris R. Cooley, the director of charities and correction who has been the father of the plan, thus consists of four estates of five hundred acres each.

In the development of the dairy to provide milk for the tuberculosis sanatorium and the other institutions, there are now about one hundred cows, a part of them registered Holsteins. A model dairy has just been completed, the barn unit to accommodate fifty cows. Two more are to be built, and two hundred cows will be provided for. The quality of the stock will be developed until there will be one large herd all thorough-bred Holsteins.

The plan is to supply the groups on the farms and also the municipal institutions in the city with pure milk produced from the best cows living under the best conditions. The last test showed the herd free from tuberculosis.

The farms are all of rolling clay land with springs and running streams furnishing an ideal place for pasturage. The results will be pure milk for our municipal institutions, thorough bred stock for sale, the enrichment of the great farms and for the surrounding country the fine example of a well kept dairy.



The Atlantic City Trolley Lines will fight Mayor Riddle's ordinance fixing a 3-cent fare for those who are not given seats in the street cars, and imposing a \$5000 fine for violation.



Contractors and Public Officials.—The Municipal Journal, October 17, 1912, reports the interesting address of C. A. Crane, secretary of the General Contractors' Association, delivered to the American Road Congress, which met in Atlantic City, October 5, relating to the Rela-

¹ See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, October, 1912, p. 725.

tion between Contractors and Public Officials. In the course of his address, Mr. Crane makes the pertinent suggestion:

Cut out the personal relations between the contractors and the public officials and let these relations be through the proxy of an engineering official. Choose a big man in his profession and pay him a big salary—put him under a heavy bond to guarantee the accuracy of his work and the validity of his certificates of payment. Why should a disbursing officer be held responsible for an engineer's voucher, unless he has equal facilities for checking the work that the engineer had in computing the amount? Centralize the power and the responsibility.

*

The Flint (Michigan) Equal Suffrage Association has accepted the invitation of Mayor Mott of that city to coöperate with him in improving the municipal housekeeping of that city. The mayor's idea is to have a municipal housekeeping commission composed of five women.

*

Electoral Reform in Pennsylvania.—The commission appointed by Governor Stuart in 1908 to revise and codify the election laws of Pennsylvania presented to the legislature its third and final report

signed by six of the seven members of the commission. A minority report was presented by William Coleman Freeman of Lebanon. Twenty-two bills accompany the report. They deal with such subjects as, a system of party enrollment with the payment of the taxes at the time of registration; regulating the preëmption of party names; separate ballots for national, state and local elections, and extending the time of registration. Two years ago a comprehensive election code was presented as a part of this report at that time. The commission makes no recommendations on the subject of the initiative, referendum, recall, commission form of government or woman suffrage, declaring that these fields are beyond the scope of the commission's duties. Mr. Freeman in his minority report declares for the submission of the question of woman's suffrage to the voters of the state, the limitation of campaign expenses and a commission form of government.¹

*

The Merit System in Milwaukee.—The fight for the extension of civil service reform in Milwaukee continues under the leadership of John A. Butler. The City Club has also taken up the matter with intelligence and vigor.

III. CITY PLANNING AND IMPROVEMENT

Lincoln Memorial.—The erection and dedication of a fitting national memorial to President Lincoln in the City of Washington, has been made possible by the passage of a bill by Congress, approving the report of the Lincoln Memorial Commission, recommending the adoption of the plans prepared by Henry Bacon of New York, for the building in Potomac Park, along the Potomac River, of a memorial building of the Greek type of architecture, to cost \$2,000,000. Careful consideration was given by the commission to several plans, all of which were referred to the commission on fine

arts which reported in favor of Mr. Bacon's plan.

For a time it looked as if the memorial undertaking might fail of passage because of an effort made in the House of Representatives to substitute for the memorial structure in Washington, a roadway to be built by the government from Washington to Gettysburg and to be called the "Lincoln Memorial Road." That undertaking was urged with great vigor by individuals and organizations, but

¹ Copies of both reports can be had on application to the chairman, Frank P. Pritchard, Land Title Building, Philadelphia.

was opposed on the grounds that a roadway would not be a fitting memorial, that it would be a very expensive undertaking, and that the \$2,000,000 appropriated for such a memorial would be but a small portion of the money necessary to build a road, to say nothing of its maintenance.

By united effort on the part of various organizations, such as the American Institute of Architects, the American Civic Association, and others public sentiment was aroused in all parts of the United States in favor of the report of the Lincoln Memorial Commission, and late in January, the bill was finally passed by the House of Representatives by a large majority, the Senate having taken action almost unanimously a few weeks before. Work will be commenced at once on the new structure, and when it is completed it is believed that it will be one of the most dignified and beautiful memorials ever erected. It will occupy a commanding position on the Potomac, overlooking the river, and facing the beautiful Lee Mansion in Arlington. It is expected that in the course of a few years, the federal government will build a beautiful bridge connecting the memorial with Arlington, and that will make it a part of the proposed scheme for the larger development of Washington according to the report of the McMillan committee of some years ago.

RICHARD B. WATROUS.¹

*

City Planning Competition.—The committee on the study of city planning appointed at the last National Conference on City Planning has been holding conferences to discuss the method of outlining the data as a basis for the proposed study. It is proposed that the committee prepare and send out a blank form of statement, to be filled in by all participants, which should include among others the following points: (1) area of tract; (2) the total cost of the land; (3)

the percentage in streets, parks, playgrounds, saleable lots, etc.; (4) the value of lots per acre; (5) the cost of streets, (pavement, curb, sidewalk, grading, trees, etc.); (6) the cost of parks and playgrounds; (7) the cost of sewers; (8) carrying charges including interest, taxes, selling cost; (9) profit; (10) the selling price of lots ready for building; also that unit costs be assumed by the committee in a number of instances where there would be variations in different parts of the country. These variations would have no particular bearing upon the solutions of the problems. For example, there should be two or three kinds of road pavements listed, with cost; but the entrant would be free to choose any other kind of pavement he might desire. The same method would apply to sidewalks. So far twenty-two entries have been made in the competition from all parts of the country.

*

Chicago's City Planning Competition.—The Chicago City Club held a housing exhibit on March 7. As a stimulating and constructive feature it displayed plans showing the possibilities according to the best current practice for laying out and improving for residence purposes areas in Chicago now unoccupied. In conjunction with the Illinois Chapter of the American Institute of Architects the club established a competition for plans for laying out as a residence district a typical area in the outskirts of the city, Alfred L. Baker, the president of the club, offering \$600 for prizes for such plans.

*

City Improvements.—*Scranton, Pa.*—Mayor John Von Bergen has appointed a city planning commission of nine men. *Louisville, Ky.*, has taken the first step for a general plan toward improving Louisville. A committee has been appointed with Mayor W. O. Head as chairman. This committee will consider the question of appointing a committee to

¹ Secretary, American Civic Association.

lay out a plan. *New York*—The City Club is forming an Olmsted Memorial Committee to erect a suitable memorial to Frederick Law Olmsted, the designer and creator of Central Park. Although Mr. Olmsted died in 1903, none has been erected for him either in Central Park or elsewhere. *Chicago*—The city's fight against the "wall of exclusion" raised along the lake shore from Twelfth Street south by the Illinois Central Railway and other property owners is set forth in the newly issued report of the Lakeshore Reclamation Committee appointed in January 1910. *Omaha*—Representatives of fifteen civic organizations coöperated in forming a civic league to plan definitely for the physical improvement of Omaha. *Los Angeles*—A proposition is pending to build a highway from the center of the city to the port of San Pedro, now a part of the city in order to provide adequate transportation facilities for shippers. Another interesting proposition under foot is that of reclaiming the waste places in and around the city, especially adjacent to the new aqueduct. *Detroit*—Plans for an outer boulevard are being considered by the City Plan and Improvement Commission. *Cincinnati*—Mayor Hunt has appointed a city planning commission to coöperate in preparing a plan of action in the construction of the new court house and jail. *Atlanta Ga.*—An improvement commission has been appointed to advance the planning of work for the improvement of the city. *Joplin, Mo.*—Under the leadership of the Commercial Club the civic clubs of the city have been brought together to coördinate efforts in behalf of the extension and development of the city. *Erie, Pa.*—The city planning committee of which F. Irving Bleakley is chairman, has planned a bill for third class cities providing for the appointment of city planning commissions in such cities. *Chicago*—Horatio Taft has been commissioned by the board of trustees of the Art Institute to begin work on the great fountain of Time designed for erection at the western terminus of the Midway Plaisance.

Canada—A Town Planning and Civic Improvement League for the province of Ontario has been launched. A preliminary meeting was held at Berlin, Ontario, and representatives from Toronto, Galt, Ottawa and other leading cities in the province were present. *Davenport, Iowa*—A levee improvement commission has had plans drawn for a systematic and harmonious improvement of the levee following the example of other cities along the river which have transformed its appearance in many places. *Seattle* has gone a little backward in its city planning movement, having recently voted \$950,000 for a county court house in the down town congested district at a point other than that suggested by the city planning commission. *Cincinnati* will codify the legislation on smoke abatement and pollution and furnace installation, Mayor Hunt having appointed a commission consisting of Prof. John T. Faig, George Wright and William Mitten-dorf to perform this work. The smoke inspector is a member ex officio of the commission. *Pittsburgh* is providing for a number of public comfort stations having voted \$90,000 in a recent loan bill for that purpose.



Philadelphia Mayor Vetoes for Aesthetic Reasons.—Recently Mayor Blankenburg, of Philadelphia, returned without approval a council ordinance permitting the erection of a platform scale on a sidewalk for the reason that it would mar the beauty and attractiveness of the locality, and that the ordinance was contrary to the aim of the city to make more attractive the streets and parks of the municipality.



Philadelphia Inaugurates Economic System of Waste Paper Disposal.—Following the example of cities abroad, Director Cooke, of the Philadelphia department of public works is inaugurating a system for the collection of waste paper by having the house-holder place the

waste in bags which are furnished by a contractor or purchaser of the waste. As yet the experiment has not been carried far enough to enable the director to say whether the city will pay for having the waste removed or the contractor pay for the privilege.



A Municipal Cemetery.—Mayor Kutcher, of Sheridan, Wyoming, is advocating a municipal graveyard and asserts:

Practically everybody with whom I have talked approves the idea. They want a cemetery maintained by the city, where they may purchase lots at reasonable cost, with provision for the perpetual care and maintenance of the plot included in the purchase agreement.



Canadian City Planning.—The Union of Canadian Municipalities for about four years has carried on a campaign throughout Canada in favor of complete city planning. The more important cities have been particularly urged to take up the question definitely and all have movements more or less developed in the right direction. The most advanced movement is that of the metropolitan parks commission of Montreal, which became permanent in May 1912 with powers similar to those of Boston. In the city of Quebec something has been done by the Dominion government which has established the Quebec battlefields park commission, and in Ottawa the Dominion government improvement commission has been beautifying the capital for years. In Toronto, the movement is principally centered in the activities of the civic art guild. Decided assistance was rendered the efforts of the Union by a tour through Canada in the summer of 1911 by Henry Vivian, M. P., London, the well known authority on garden cities.



The National Conference on City Planning will be held in Chicago, May 5, 6 and 7.

Los Angeles School Gardening Shows Interesting Development.—For several years school gardens were carried on in Los Angeles by some of the schools, but not until lately was special provision made for developing the work in a systematic manner through the creation of an agricultural department of the Los Angeles schools under the supervision of Clayton F. Palmer and four assistants. The special teachers go from school to school, giving instruction and developing agriculture in its various phases in the different grades, each of them responsible for the development and maintenance of the work in a definite portion of the city. In each of these there is being established a demonstration center at a school where conditions seem most favorable for developing the work through all the grades. Available school grounds and nearby vacant lots are utilized, and even distant lots are turned to account by special arrangements for the pupils. In addition to ordinary gardening, considerable practical work is done in the propagation of fruits, ornamental and forest trees. Home gardening is especially encouraged. During the coming year ornamentation of the school grounds will be pushed, the material for which will be propagated largely as part of the class work of the students. The board of education, the superintendent of schools, and the teachers themselves are giving the project their sympathetic support, and during the past summer the board made a most encouraging move in favor of better results in school gardening in providing summer gardeners to care for the grounds during school vacation.



Madrid has many ambitious plans under consideration for the beautifying of the city itself and for the improvement of the municipal services,¹ but it has been unable to carry through many of its most important projects on account

¹ According to Consul Charles L. Hoover.

of the lack of funds arising from a radical change in the manner of raising revenue inaugurated on July 1, 1911. Prior to that time, the principal source of income was from the octroi taxes. These were abolished on the date mentioned on all foodstuffs except fresh meat, upon which the octroi duty is about 2.5 cents a pound. To cover the deficit thus caused in the revenue, a graded tax on rents, running up to 15 per cent of the

rent, and an increased tax on "carriages of luxury" were instituted. The rent tax is paid by the renter, as the landlords already pay an income tax on the rentals they receive. The new taxes were at the outset unpopular and difficult to collect, so that the municipality has been unable to push the work of widening and straightening streets, laying new pavements and extending the park system.

IV. POLITICS

Seattle and the Recall.—The experience of Seattle in the recent movement to recall the mayor presents some features that throw light upon the practical use of the recall in municipal affairs. Soon after election, Mayor Cotterill found himself charged with general inefficiency and failure to enforce the laws by a recall association, said to have been financed largely by saloon and gambling resort interests, which circulated recall petitions and conducted a campaign to have him removed from office. The agitation of the recall association received little support however, until the mayor became inadvertently intangled in a controversy between the Spanish American War Veterans and the Industrial Workers of the World by criticising a group of the former for making an attack upon the latter while engaged in a peaceful parade carrying the red flag, the emblem of the I. W. W. Several newspapers took up the controversy and ascribed the mayor's criticism to opposition to the American patriots and support of the I. W. W. As a result of this incident, a large number of persons put their names to a recall petition which was finally filed as complete. A careful check of the names on the petition was made, however, and it was found that there was a very large number of duplications, spurious names and addresses and a considerable number of forgeries, reducing the signatures below the recall number.

Under the circumstances the petition was held insufficient.

Seattle is unfortunate in having a daily newspaper of large circulation, that is notorious for its support of every special interest and for its bitter opposition to every kind of civic reform. This paper was the defender of the vice regime under Gill. It has consistently opposed all the modern features of the charter, such as election of councilmen at large, initiative and referendum, recall and public ownership.

From the time that Gill was ousted in the recall election of 1911, this paper, allied with the worst interests in the city, has constantly assailed the mayor and the police in editorials, cartoons and distorted news articles in the attempt to create a public sentiment that would make it possible to recall the mayor. But in spite of this newspaper support the effort to recall Dilling, who succeeded Gill, failed.

The election of Cotterill was a menace to all that this paper represented and its attack on the forces of order and decency was renewed with increased vigor. After months of the most active support given to the movement the recall petitions were filed. About one-half the names on these petitions were found to be forgeries or the names of persons not registered.

Seattle's experience has fully vindicated the principle of the recall. It was

successfully invoked against the representative of vice and special privilege, but both subsequent attempts to employ it against good government have failed.¹



Boston.—At the last municipal election held in January there were only four candidates to be elected, three members of the city council and one member of the school committee. There were fewer candidates than ever before. There was also very little interest in the election. The registration was 112,126; 46,853 names or 41.8 per cent were checked upon the voting list as voting for councilmen; 11,127 women were registered for the school committee; 4939 or 44.4 per cent voted. Two out of the three candidates for council endorsed by the Good Government Association were elected. The third successful candidate was an erratic politician for whom many people voted either as a matter of good nature or to see what would happen, with the result that he ran third in the poll. His election will do no serious harm to the city as seven of the nine members of the city council are men who were recommended by the Good Government Association at the time of their election. The two good government candidates reelected in January had given such generally satisfactory service that no one connected with the dominant political organization thought there was the slightest chance of defeating them. For the school committee Miss Curtis who was endorsed by the Good Government Association, defeated the candidate backed by the dominant political organization.

¹ Based on statements of C. J. France and Prof. J. Allen Smith.

Cleveland Urges Official Municipal Lobby at State Capitol.—Following the idea of the New York Citizen's Union and the practice of cities in Europe, the Cleveland city council committee on legislation is urging the formation of a league of the committees on legislation of the councils of all the larger cities of the state for the purpose of providing a powerful official municipal lobby at Columbus. Chairman E. P. Dowling, of the Cleveland city council committee on legislations, says:

Each city has its own problems. The conditions arising in many cities are very similar, but up to the present time there has been no coherent, concerted action by the legislators from the counties in which the cities are located looking toward passage of laws enabling cities to meet their conditions.

Mr. Dowling also believes the councils should provide in their rules that the mayor of the city be ex officio a member of the council committee on legislation.



Detroit Graft Prosecution.—Prosecuting Attorney Hugh Shepherd, of Detroit, November 9, filed a petition for a change of venue with Judge Phelan for the cases of Alderman Theissen, Hindle, Deimel, Walsh, Glinnan and other men named on the blanket warrant charging them with conspiracy to accept a bribe. No date was set.



The Governor of Washington has refused to pardon Seattle's former chief of police, Wappenstein, who was convicted on July 19, 1911 of receiving a bribe and sentenced to a term in the penitentiary of from three to twelve years.

V. CONFERENCES AND ASSOCIATIONS

Second World's Congress of International Associations.—The Second World's Congress of International Associations will be held at Ghent, Brussels, this summer. From the central office of this body two important circulars have been sent out, one noting the questions to be considered by the union of international associations, the other describing the first town planning and municipal organization congress, which is to follow. Among the questions to be considered at the meeting of the international association is that of organization and practical measures necessary to develop an international center and to give it a location and a material installation. This international association is a very broad organization and considers a great many other questions than those which relate to cities. The officers of the congress have in mind the organization of scientific, technical and social publications in such a way as to increase the diffusion of knowledge and to "draw closer the bonds of the intellectual, international coöperation." Terminology will also come in for a consideration. The congress has been organized with the aid of the delegates who attended the first meeting and of the special commission which has been formed since. The invitation has been sent to all of the international associations which have adhered to the union and will also include the official delegates of the states, individual members and those who have been specially invited to take part in the debates.

To ascertain the wishes of those who expect to be present there will be a preliminary referendum inquiry on the various questions that will come up for discussion. In this way information will be gathered concerning the thoughts, suggestions and precedents to be considered and followed. There will be adequate reports of the results of the referendum. It is expected that eighteen countries will be represented at the

congress and the subsequent exhibition, and steps are being taken to create "a life in common during the portion of the congress so that there may be a real community of interest among the delegates."¹

The first congress was held in 1910.

The town planning conference will be carried on through July and August. In its circular the organizing committee points out the very remarkable growth of cities during the nineteenth century and how that has brought to the front for urgent and thoughtful discussion problems of the first consideration. It very properly declares that the solutions found by one community are useful for the guidance of others and "it follows that everyone who is concerned with the betterment of town life will profit by bringing his experience to a common centre of discussion, where he can modify or develop his schemes by comparison with those of other students." According to the *London Municipal Journal*, in the matter of town planning it is intended to continue the work of the London town planning congress, the Berlin exhibition of 1910, and the Düsseldorf exhibition of 1912. A general program of matters for debate has been tentatively prepared in which the subject is divided into sections as follows:

A. Town Extension. General principles of town growth—The street, classification of its types—Undeveloped areas—Public buildings—Housing, building regulations, etc.—Transport—Town divisions or quarters—Classes of towns, e.g., garden cities, modern villages, industrial areas, places of resort, etc., and their various treatment—Congested districts.

B. Preservation and Administration of Old Districts. Street works, new roads—Public monuments—Town beautifying—Public thoroughfares—Traffic regulations—Metropolitan transport—The necessary legal and administrative powers.

¹ Based on the translation by Anna Florence Woodruff.

Besides this general scheme, a number of specific questions on the same matters are set down as suitable topics of debate, on which it is proposed that papers should be read, to be followed by discussion. The following examples will indicate the nature and scope of the proposed agenda?

Question 1. When an authority asks for plans of an intended extension, what data would be required by the architect and engineers before proceeding with the plans, i.e., with reference to by-laws, information as to quantity and nature of rolling stock, relief of the land, points of convergence of roadways, boundaries of various quarters, etc.?

Question 2. What proportion of space in a city should be open—as parks, squares, public places, etc.—judging from the plans of the great capitals?

Question 8. What aesthetic rules are to be applied to the town-planning of places of resort such as are constantly being formed on the sea coast and near thermal springs?

Question 9. Study the rules to follow for the creation of (a) garden cities, (b) places of resort in picturesque sites which have to be preserved, (c) industrial centres, (d) modern villages, and (e) colonial or settlers' towns.

Question 10. Is the construction of circuses or open spaces at the intersection of large roads in urban areas to be recommended?

Question 12. Describe the best conditions for the construction in towns of routes for heavy traffic by modern means of transport. State the cases in which recourse must be taken to overhead ways as in New York, or underground, as is proposed by M. Henard for certain streets in Paris.

Question 14. What conditions are to be fulfilled by plans for public parks in large cities? Is it desirable to construct reserved roadways for (a) motors, (b) pedestrians, (c) cyclists, (d) tramways?

Question 15. What are the possible means of passage "super" and "sub," i.e., overhead and underground, at crossings and quadrants, intended to facilitate the circulation of traffic in large modern cities?

With regard to the second section of the congress, it is proposed to consider the subject under the following headings: (1) The legal and (2) the financial, constitution of the authority, (3) its economic scope, (4) its intellectual and moral well-being, and (5) its social activities. The committee suggests that the following questions should be brought up for deliberation:

What should be the legal constitution of the authority; what should be its relations with its superior authorities, with other similar authorities, and with the inhabitants of the district or borough?

What should be the financial constitution of the authority, the extent of its control of the real and mobile estate which form part of its resources, and the rates and imposts, from which it draws its revenue?

How the staff of the municipal administration should be regulated with regard to its recruitment, formation and remuneration.

How can the authority's economic activity reach its highest stage of development; what should be the rules governing grants, rating, excise, etc.?

How to develop the intellectual and moral well-being of communal organisations. Schools excepted as being so large a subject; other educational works still demand attention, such as libraries, museums, lecture halls, etc.

What is the extent of local powers in social matters? What is the communal liability to the various stations of life—infancy, youth, and old age—in particular circumstances, such as maternity, accident, unemployment, etc.?

*

The Second National Housing Conference.—In Philadelphia, the city of homes, a delegate to the second national housing conference last week, during one of the inspection trips, opened a cellar door and started down the steps to investigate. His investigation stopped at the first step for below him was a pool of filthy water rising almost to the level of the ground outside. His exclamation of surprise drew the attention not only of the rest of the delegates but also of one of the tenants. "That water," she said, "has been there three years." "Then why don't the health authorities do something about it?" demanded a Philadelphian, "and if thy don't act why doesn't the housing commission demand action? Certainly the people of Philadelphia will stand behind any measures to abolish such a condition as this."

But that is the question; will they? To abolish just such unwholesome conditions

costs money, it calls for a health department adequately supplied with funds, with men and with legal powers. Few, if any, of our American city health departments are now so supplied and one of the chief purposes of the second national conference on housing in America was to call the attention of the people to the imperative need for them.

But this was far from being the only purpose of the conference. The evils that must be cured form one phase of the housing problem, the constructive work that may be done in future city building forms another quite as important; and the two hundred and thirty-one delegates representing seventy-six cities and twenty-three American states and Canadian provinces were interested in both. So the first inspection trip showed the bad housing conditions of Philadelphia; the unsewered streets flanked by old houses with privy vaults in the tiny, dirty yards, ill-smelling and sodden from surface drainage, the unventilated rooms of back to back dwellings, the dark rooms and halls of old tenements. The second trip took the delegates into newer parts of the city and showed them the typical single family houses—houses which ensure a privacy and a sense of family unity impossible in tenements, the houses of the Octavia Hill Association—once as bad as the worst but repaired and remodeled so that while yielding a fair return on the investment they also provide attractive homes at small rentals, the houses of the Girard Estate—too expensive for the wage-earner but indicating by their centralized management, their central heating plant, and their construction, economies which may be applied to the building and management of less costly dwellings.

The program of the conference covered both sides of the housing problem. Health officials from more than a score of American and Canadian cities, from the federal health service and from that of the Dominion told of the progress they are making in cleaning up the slums.

In this the Canadians appeared to have the advantage, at least those from Ontario cities, for there seems to be no doubt of the adequacy of their powers. In some of the American municipalities inspectors hesitate to enter private premises even when they suspect the existence there of unsanitary conditions. This seemed strange to Dr. Charles J. Hastings, medical health officer of Toronto, who said that he sends his inspectors into any house whether that of a poor man or a rich man, "How else," he asked, "can we know what the conditions are?" As for his powers of enforcement and the way in which those powers are upheld by the courts and the legal end of the city government—a very weak point in many American towns—he told a little anecdote. "Some time ago the health officer had occasion to order repairs on a house owned by a member of the city council. Unable to get him to modify his order the councilman sought the city solicitor. "Did the health officer tell you to do that?" asked the solicitor. "He did," replied the councilman indignantly. "Then," said the solicitor comfortingly, "all I can tell you is that if the health officer tells you to go to hell, you've got to go." So Toronto is being cleaned up.

This matter of the health officer's powers in the improvement of housing was dealt with at length by Mrs. Albion Fellows Bacon, author of the Indiana state housing law, in her paper on "Regulation by Law," by Mrs. Johanna von Wagner, under the title "Instructive Sanitary Inspection," and by Lawrence Veiller, secretary of the National Housing Association in his discussion on "Room Overcrowding and the Lodger Evil." These twin evils are almost universal and so far only two cities have made any consistent attempt to deal with them, New York and Boston. Mr. Veiller stated that the only practical method is to hold the owner responsible. The city can hold the owner, the owner can control his tenants, but the city can not effectively reach the tenants. To

attempt to divide responsibility between owner and tenants, as is often proposed, will simply result in falling between two stools.

This position was endorsed at various times during the conference by delegates who have had practical experience with properties of the kind that usually cause the most trouble. Alfred T. White, owner of the Riverside Buildings in Brooklyn, one of the pioneers in the American housing movement and for more than thirty-five years an owner of tenement property, said: "If I had my life to live over again, I would rather do without any other investment I ever made than the one I made in tenement houses. The tenants will take care of the property if it is properly managed. We hear no more of the old libel that they won't take care of the improved houses." A representative of the Octavia Hill Association, after showing that the last annual bill for repairs due to carelessness of tenants in the association's 500 houses was only \$50, answered the question, "To what extent are tenants responsible for bad housing conditions," by the one word "None."

The constructive side of housing was dealt with in a number of discussions beginning with Lee K. Frankel's address on financing the small houses. Grosvenor Atterbury showed the reverse side of the promising picture so often presented under the caption "Garden Cities." Elmer S. Forbes, described the improvements possible in rural and suburban housing. John Nolen discussed the relation between the factory and the home and John Ihlder described the best practicable types of wage-earners' houses in three locations; near the center of the city, on the outskirts and in small communities, laying especial stress on the necessity for discouraging the building of tenement or multiple dwellings and holding out as the ideal to be kept constantly in mind the single family detached house with its own yard or garden.

Among the delegates were a consider-

able number who are now actively engaged in building small houses for wage-earners. In order to take advantage of each other's experience in practical details they held a session between the regular meetings. Their purpose was to learn what experience has shown is the least amount for which a house meeting the minimum requirements can be built. This would then set a standard. The two-family houses built by the Washington Sanitary Improvement Company in which three rooms and bath rent for \$9 a month seemed to come the nearest to this, and General George M. Sternberg's description of their arrangement, the number of rooms, and the method of financing them gave standards upon which the discussion was based.

England as well as Canada contributed to the conference for at the banquet which brought the three days' sessions to a close Ambassador Bryce told of the housing movement in Great Britain, in which he has been one of the leaders. It is the smaller cities, he said, that have the greatest opportunities to become home communities, and therefore he decried the desire for mere bigness.

At the opening of the conference Robert W. de Forest, president of the National Housing Association, stated its purpose. "We are here to help," he said; "let us aim at practical things. Do not let us try to do everything, for we can't. Some things we can do; let us pick the most important and do them. And everywhere let us hold up the hands of our officials at home, not merely pursue them with hostile criticism." That expressed the spirit of the conference, coöperation between citizens and officials in the doing of practical things.

JOHN IHLDER.

✱

Conference on State Control of the Milk Industry.—On February 5 there was held in New York City, under the auspices of the New York Milk Committee, a conference to consider a program for "legislation Looking toward Uni-

form State Control of the Milk Industry." The governors of nine northeastern states had been requested by the Committee to name three delegates each to represent their state departments of health and of agriculture and also the private dairy interests. All the New England states except Maine and Rhode Island participated in the conference, as did New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Maryland. The federal public health service and the bureau of animal industry were also represented. Over twenty delegates responded to the roll call.

While the conference was free to vote as it chose on the questions placed on the program, a series of suggestions after most of the questions plainly indicated the opinions if not the desire of those who had framed the program. Most of the questions raised were decided in accordance with the program suggestions, but quite the contrary was the case with what might be termed the fundamental administrative suggestions.

Briefly stated, the conference declared in favor of (1) state inspection of dairy farms, centralized in the state board of agriculture, or where such a board does not exist then in the state live stock sanitary board; (2) state control of all milk products, as well as milk itself; (3) the classification or grading of dairy herds into (A) tuberculin tested and physically tested, (B) not tuberculin tested but physically perfect, (C) not tuberculin tested and not physically examined; (4) the use of the U. S. government score cards for scoring dairies; (5) that all milk should be divided into four classes, according to the classes of herds from which it comes, its bacterial contents (numerical counts) and conditions making for cleanliness or non-infectiousness; (6) and that the function of municipal boards of health should (virtually) be confined to the control of milk after it comes within the municipal boundaries.

Aside from establishing the principles of (1) state control of everything pertaining to the milk supply outside the

municipalities concerned and (2) local control within those cities and towns, which was accomplished, the apparent hope of the program framers, and presumably of the New York milk committee, was to secure a declaration from the conference in favor of vesting centralized state milk control in a state milk board, composite in character so as to represent various interests, and then to divide the administrative work (chiefly inspection of various sorts) between the health and agricultural departments of each state. The program suggestion for a state milk board provided for a chairman, who should be the state commissioner of health; a vice-chairman, who should be the state commissioner of agriculture (or of the state cattle bureau); the assistant attorney-general; the dean of the state dairy school; and a sanitarian learned in bacteriology and medicine.

As might have been expected, the representatives of the state agricultural department and of the private dairy interests joined votes against the state health department delegates and completely smashed this part of the program. That is, the composite milk board suggestion was overwhelmingly defeated and in its place the conference voted in favor of placing centralized milk control in the state department of agriculture. The Conference did declare, however, in favor of giving the state department of health certain inspection work, although a strong effort was made to confine this within narrower limits than the program framers had suggested.

So far as local boards of health were concerned the conference left them, as the program framers evidently desired, with powers much more limited than those now exercised by a goodly number of the more progressive boards of health of the country. Assertions were not lacking to the effect that there was no intention of curtailing any of the existing powers of local boards of health over their milk supplies, but the spirit of the program, of much of the discussion and of the majority of those who voted was

to give the states full control of the production, canning or bottling and shipping of milk and leave the local boards no powers until the milk was within the city or town limits. The strongest pleas in support of this plan were that by it alone would duplication of inspection be avoided and efficient inspection of any kind be established; but little attention was paid to the small likelihood that for years to come any state in the Union will provide the money and the efficient organization needed for so thorough-going a state-wide dairy inspection as would render it safe for local boards of health to give no attention to their milk supplies until the milk enters the municipality.

Notwithstanding the unhappy way in which portions of the program were framed (not of all which have been mentioned here), and even though the milk-producing delegates outnumbered the health delegates present by more than two to one, the conference gave promise of helpful coöperative work among these conflicting interests in the future.

M. N. BAKER.¹

✱

The Ohio Municipal League organized a year ago at a conference of Ohio cities, held its first annual meeting in Columbus on January 22 and 23. The Conference was called last year primarily for the purpose of securing some unanimity on a municipal home rule proposal to be submitted to the Constitutional Convention.²

The main subject for discussion, therefore, at the first annual meeting of the league was the scope of the home rule amendment and the legislation necessary to put the amendment into full effect. The opinion of Mayor Newton D. Baker, president of the League, and others was that it grants to the cities of the state the broadest home rule powers in strictly local affairs and permits them to adopt and enforce within their limits such local

police, sanitary and other similar regulations are as not in conflict with general laws. This view was declared to be the intention of the constitutional convention by three members of the convention who were delegates in the Conference. Whether the Ohio courts will so hold is yet to be seen.

A committee of the Municipal Association of Cleveland submitted to the conference the drafts of three forms of charters for consideration and submission, later, to the legislature: the commission plan, the city manager plan and the federal plan. These were all discussed at some length; a number of amendments were offered; the plans were approved in general and were then submitted, with amendments, to a committee of fifteen from various cities with full power to revise, and submit them to the legislature in completed form.

The general assembly seems to be in full sympathy with the league's program, and the three plans in their final form, will in all probability, be enacted into law. Many of the smaller cities of the state are waiting to see the shape in which these so-called "hand-me-down" charters will emerge from the legislative hopper before taking any steps toward preparing charters of their own making. The League took a firm stand in favor of the civil service act also framed by the Municipal Association and introduced into the Senate by Senator Carl D. Friebohn. The taxation question was discussed at some length and a number of amendments were recommended to the Smith 1 per cent law.

More than three hundred delegates from sixty-three municipalities were present. Twenty-four of these were mayors. The others were officials and unofficial representatives appointed as delegates by the mayors of the various cities.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year: President, Henry T. Hunt, Mayor of Cincinnati; secretary-treasurer, Mayo Fesler, Cleveland.

MAYO FESLER.

¹ President, Montclair, N. J., board of health.

² See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. 1, p. 285.

League of Missouri Municipalities.—The fifth annual meeting was held in St. Louis on December 17, 1912. About thirty delegates from twenty Missouri cities attended. The discussion centered about the necessity for a constitutional convention in order that the smaller cities of Missouri might get the needed relief from present constitutional restraints. Practically all the constitutional amendments seeking to give this relief have been defeated through the indifference of the electorate.

The delegates also favored a law providing for a non-partisan board of public utilities with power to regulate fares and service of all public service corporations. The delegates pledged themselves to work for the enactment of a law giving cities and towns power to adopt the commission form of government. The following officers were reelected for another year: president, Samuel D. Hodgdon, Webster Groves; secretary, Sydney J. Roy, Hannibal.



The Tennessee Municipal League was successfully launched on January 16. Twenty-two mayors of cities and towns were present, and many questions of vital municipal interest were discussed. Dr. A. D. Martin, of Lebanon, led the discussion on a bill enabling all Tennessee towns to adopt commission government if they so desire. A committee was appointed to draft and work for the passage of such a bill. A good roads committee was appointed, and the good roads movement in Tennessee endorsed. The mayors also favored a movement to provide for more tuberculosis hospitals in Tennessee, and it was urged that the state do as much as possible to stamp out the white plague. The following officers were elected: president, Mayor H. F. Howse, of Nashville; secretary and treasurer J. W. Horton, of Tullahoma.



West Virginia Mayors.—Responding to a call of Mayor Chapman of Huntington, the mayors of thirty cities of West

Virginia met in convention at Charleston and the Municipal League of West Virginia, the first organization of its kind in the history of the state, came into existence. Municipal control of public service corporations was strongly advocated by Mayor Chapman. He also favored a law granting the right to municipalities to regulate such corporations. Mayor Chapman was elected permanent chairman of the organization, and Mayor W. H. Garnett, of Hinton, was elected secretary.



The Arkansas Municipal League, the outcome of a conference of mayors, city attorneys and aldermen, came into existence on January 16. The object of this conference was the framing of legislation permitting municipalities to issue bonds for improvements. A committee was appointed to prepare a constitution and by-laws.



The State League of Utah Municipalities held its seventh annual convention on January 10, 11, at American Fork. Addresses were given on necessary legislation on liquor, public health, moral questions, and good roads.



The Mayors' Association of Connecticut held a midwinter meeting in the office of Mayor Cheney of Hartford. Among the subjects considered was that of the practicability of a municipal survey of the administrative practices of of Connecticut cities and especially of Hartford.

CLYDE L. KING.¹



The Mayors' Society of New Jersey is a new organization designed to advance all the policies that may be of benefit to the various municipalities of the state. Concerning the work of the Society Mayor Donnelly of Trenton writes:

¹ Of the University of Pennsylvania.

We believe that by regular meetings and the resultant interchange of thought each city will receive the advantage of becoming familiar with the policies that have been found beneficial in neighboring cities. We also draft and support legislation that is needed by any of the cities, and do so with the view of giving each city just what it needs without encumbering other cities whose needs are different. This society has already gone on record as of favoring the abolition of grade crossings; the entire expense to be borne by the railroad. We have fought for this measure during the past two sessions of the legislature and believe we are about to gain a notable victory in this respect. We have also gone on record as favoring absolute home rule for New Jersey municipalities giving each city the right to look after its own requirements. We are also in back of the bill giving municipalities a uniform system of accounting, a uniform system of purchasing, and arranging for a uniform system of issuing bonds in contract work. We have also advocated establishing headquarters in Trenton, and the employment of a permanent secretary for research work to ascertain advantages of the various forms of municipal government that are in vogue in American cities, and to keep records of the society for the benefit of those who want to learn what various cities of the state are accomplishing.



St. Louis's Federation of Federations is a central committee made up of representatives of the Central Trades and Labor Union, the School Patrons Alliance, the Central Council of Social Agencies, the Central Council of Civic Organizations, the Federation of Catholic Societies, the General Jewish Council, the Federation of Churches, the Council of Women's Organizations, and the Council of Business Organizations.



Port Officials.—At the suggestion Calvin Tomkins, dock commissioner of New York, George W. Norris, director of docks of Philadelphia, and Hugh Bancroft, director of the port of Boston, a conference of harbor officials was held in New York, December 9 and 10, 1912, with the result that the National Asso-

ciation of Port Officials was organized. This is the first attempt that has been made to bring about coöperation between the harbor officials of the different ports of the United States, with a view to an exchange of information as to the best and most scientific development of harbor facilities. It was decided to hold conferences annually, to exchange information relative to port construction, maintenance and operation, and to formulate as far as possible recommendations for uniform policies and the standardization of port facilities.

Colonel Tomkins was elected president; Colonel Goethals, of the Panama Canal, first vice-president; Alexander R. Smith, of New York, secretary and H. C. Gahn of Cleveland, treasurer.



Cincinnati and Indianapolis.—Combining the energy and enthusiasm of the younger Commercial Association with 1500 members with the prestige and solidity of the Chamber of Commerce, Cincinnati is to have one of the largest and most solidly financed and powerful commercial bodies in the United States. In Indianapolis a similar consolidation movement is on foot. A committee representing the several commercial bodies including the Commercial Club and the Chamber of Commerce is at work.



The Municipal Association of Cleveland has changed its name to the Civic League of Cleveland. There has been no change in the membership or officers. This action was taken to prevent misunderstanding resulting from confusing the association with the various municipal undertakings in the city, also because the newspapers had gotten into the habit of calling the organization the "Muny."



Grand Rapids Junior Association of Commerce.—The Grand Rapids Junior Association of Commerce, was organ-

ized on October 5, with a membership in the neighborhood of two hundred, for a year of study and work in the industrial, commercial and civic problems of Grand

Rapids. The movement ought to bring about a closer relationship between the public schools and the business community.

VI. EDUCATIONAL AND ACADEMIC

The Progressive Municipal Service.—In its municipal phase, the Progressive Service has undertaken an application to local conditions of the scheme of its national organization. The experiment is an interesting one, extending as it does to boroughs and towns no less than to cities. Under the administrative board of the party executive committee, a committee has general charge, through a chief of service. From this head, the service radiates into two bureaus: that of education, and that of legislative reference. There are four general departments: Social and industrial justice, conservation, popular government, cost of living and corporation control. Both the bureaus and the departments have their appropriate subdivisions. The idea has been to extend this scheme in its entirety to municipal progressive service organizations. The municipal, borough or town service committees operate through local chiefs of service. In the local organizations there are the same bureaus, and the same general departments, with their appropriate subcommittees.

Its operation may be illustrated, in the case of cities, by the example of the New York County Progressive service organization, New York County and the Borough of Manhattan having the same boundaries. Under the general charge of education and publicity committees, corresponding to the education and legislative reference bureaus of the national scheme, there are fourteen subcommittees, covering the recruiting, training and placing of speakers; matter of housing and congestion problems; markets; licenses; police department and board of education, city and state officials and the conduct of their offices; the board of aldermen, their records and

votes on important questions; local and auxiliary organizations and the organization of clubs among the foreign population; poll watchers and elections workers, to insure honesty in elections; finance and printing. Every sphere of political and social service activity is covered. The organization is as complete and as thorough as the national organization, and even more detailed.

In the case of towns, Greenwich, Connecticut, may serve as an example of the application of this general idea. There, the Greenwich Progressive Club acts through a service committee, following the model of the national service.

The activities touching municipal problems are not, however, confined to furnishing a scheme for local organizations, nor even to encouraging and assisting in the establishment of such organizations. Recently, a draft of a civil service law for cities, prepared under the auspices of the National Civil Service Reform League, was secured for the use of the Progressive Party of St. Louis with the idea that it might be incorporated into the platform of the Party in that city.

PAXTON HIBBEN.

*

Cincinnati Municipal Editor.—For the purpose of editing the annual city departmental reports, the executive department of Cincinnati has called to its assistance a municipal editor who is officially known as inspector for the mayor. Mayor Hunt rightly believes that the city's reports can be made interesting to the public and still be a succinct accounting of the work of the city departments for the year; and it is his intention to eliminate all unintelligible and unimportant statistics, to put

the tables and figures that are used in a form that will be readily comprehended by the average reader, and especially to make the introductory and explanatory remarks something more than mere perfunctory statements.



A Municipal Newspaper in Dresden.

—It is an interesting fact that a newspaper is owned and administered by Dresden, the property having been bequeathed to the municipality. In 1856, Dr. J. Guentz, publisher of the *Dresdener Anzeiger* and proprietor of an advertising bureau, willed said bureau and the right of publishing the *Anzeiger* to the city as a special foundation for the common welfare, under the condition that the profits be used for beautifying Dresden and for charitable purposes. In 1895, C. Blochmann, who had printed the *Anzeiger* since 1848 enlarged the foundation by the gift of his well equipped printing establishment. The annual profits of the united foundations now amount to about \$60,000.



National Municipal League Prizes for 1913.

—The Baldwin prize for this year was for the best essay on the subject of "The Best Sources of City Revenue." The judges are George C. Sikes, secretary of the Chicago bureau of efficiency, and Dr. LeGrand Powers of the census bureau. The school prize is devoted to "The Milk Supply in My City," for which an elaborate outline was prepared by M. N. Baker, chairman of the executive committee of the National Municipal League. The interest in this prize has been so unique and widespread and the treatment of it so suggestive that Mr. Baker will present a brief article on it in the July issue of the *National Municipal Review*. The judges are Prof. Selskar M. Gunn of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and John Spargo, of Yonkers, N. Y. The subject of the Cincinnati prize is "The Best Charter for Cincinnati." The judges

are Prof. Robert C. Brooks of Swarthmore College and A. J. Freiberg of the Cincinnati bar.



Public Control of Vocational Education.—At the recent Philadelphia convention of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, the even progress of this movement was slightly jarred by a division of opinion as to whether the control of vocational education shall rest with the public school authorities or be turned over to a new body entirely separated from the school department.

Several able addresses advocated new departments both in the state and municipal management of vocational education. It is fair to say, however, that the prevailing sentiment of the convention, while favoring a separate administration of vocational schools, nevertheless insisted on some positive articulation between the public school system and any system of vocational education.

Divergence of opinion as to the best form of control for this new type of training is natural enough, arising as it does from a common disbelief in the efficacy of vocational instruction under academic auspices. There is experience available, however, in this country which throws light on the problem of control. Massachusetts has had its experience with a dual system and is now convinced that while different motives, buildings, aims, equipment, and even budget must be applied to a system of practical education, still a centralized and a coordinating authority must be in possession of the entire field of education. This is an essential in a democratically supported school system.

MEYER BLOOMFIELD.¹



Winston-Salem High School Boys Making Economic Survey of City.—As a first step in an industrial survey of the

¹ Of the Boston Vocation Bureau.

city by the board of trade, the boys in the department of government and economics of the High School of Winston-Salem, N. C., will be set to work under the direction of the secretary of the Board of Trade to gather industrial statistics for 1912. This is considered an advanced step in training the boys for citizenship by giving them an opportunity to study at close range the industrial situation of their home city.



The *Journal of Social and Civic Chicago* is the title of a monthly publication issued in the "interests of good citizenship" for the coöperation of the sundry social and civic agencies of Chicago, particularly those which are sustained by

the city. The February issue which is a fair sample of the publication, discusses such questions as why the park districts of Chicago should be consolidated, and the appointment of police women, as well as giving the news of the various coöperating agencies.



Baltimore has begun the publication of a semi-monthly municipal journal with A. S. Goldsborough as managing editor. The first issue appeared January 15, and consisted of 12 pages.



Greater Portland is the title of the official organ of the Greater Portland (Oregon) Plans Association, the first number of which was issued February 1.

VII. SOCIAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

Public Health Notes.—A *notable mosquito reduction* campaign was waged in Essex County, N. J., during the summer of 1912. Probably more was done in the town of Montclair than elsewhere in the county, for the town was first in the campaign, the town council, at the request of the local board of health, appropriating \$2000 for mosquito fighting as early as January. Later on, the state legislature, prompted in large measure by the North Jersey Mosquito Extermination League, authorized the creation of mosquito commissions in every county of the state, the appointments to be made by the county court and money to be provided by county boards of freeholders, to such extent as they saw fit. The act, it will be seen, was permissive, not mandatory. A commission was created in Essex County and \$75,000 placed at its disposal. The commission engaged inspectors and assigned them to districts. Montclair employed six inspectors for some months. Some of these were "taken over" and paid by the county commission, but they remained under the direction of the Montclair health officer, Chester H. Wells. The

plan of campaign in Montclair was to divide the town (about six square miles in area, with a population of 23,000) into six districts, and have each district thoroughly gone over once in each week or two. Under the Montclair sanitary code the maintenance of mosquito breeding places is a nuisance. Public notice was served that if mosquitoes were found breeding on any premises a second time the property owner would be prosecuted. Any breeding places found were either abated by getting rid of the water or else they were oiled as a temporary measure. The net results of the campaign cannot, of course, be stated in exact terms, but the general consensus of citizens in Montclair was that the mosquitoes were materially less in numbers in 1912 than in previous years. Some of this may have been due to natural causes far beyond the control of man, but it seems only fair to assume that the campaign against the pests was in considerable measure a success. It should be added that besides earlier local work for the elimination of breeding places in Montclair and other municipalities scattered through New Jersey the state has,

for a number of years past, done extensive drainage work on river and sea coast marshes. By far the greater part of the notorious Jersey mosquitoes are mere pests, and not malaria spreaders, a fact which raises a question as to the extent to which mosquito reduction in that state is a health function.

The state work has been done under the state entomologist and the county work of 1912 under independent commissions.

The Health Department of Asheville, N. C. is one of the most wide awake departments in the country, judging from the account it gives of itself in its monthly bulletin. The health board consists of the mayor, the city engineer, the chairman of the finance committee of the board of aldermen, and four physicians. There is a health officer, a sanitary inspector, a meat and milk inspector, and a sewer and plumbing inspector, besides which the water superintendent is listed as one of the executive officers of the board. All this, as well as the bulletin, speaks well for a city of 20,000 people.

The International Milk Dealers Association was organized five years ago. Each of its 43 members has subscribed to a platform which declares for an improved milk supply and a lower infant mortality. The association has employed Dr. Charles E. North, of New York City, as consulting sanitarian.

A Municipal Tuberculin Dispensary, for administering tuberculin to consumptives, is being operated by Portsmouth, England, under the direction of Dr. Hilda Clarke. A building was erected in the center of the town, near the town hall. It is about 20 by 35 feet in plan, with waiting and consulting rooms, at either end and dressing rooms between, besides a laboratory and toilet rooms. Plans for the building were drawn by the borough engineer's department. During 1911 a total of 445 persons were registered as applying for treatment, besides which some would-be applicants were turned away. Of 368 persons who

were examined 291 proved to be tubercular and 216 were thought to be susceptible of improvement by treatment. A floor plan and perspective view of the dispensary building, with some particulars not here given, may be found in *The Surveying and Housing World* for September 21, 1912.

A Reorganization of the Bureau of Records of the New York City health department, with subdivisions for records proper, for research and for publicity, was strongly urged in 1911 by an advisory committee of statisticians. This recommendation is again urged, with a number of others, in a "Report on Vital Statistics and Health Reports of New York City," prepared by E. H. Lewinski-Corwin, executive committee of the public health, hospital and budget committee of the New York Academy of Medicine, and published in the *Medical Record* of November 23, 1912. Owing largely to lack of funds, the present Bureau of Records is not efficiently and sufficiently manned, its reports are so long delayed as to lose a large part of their value, and the reports are inadequate—particularly in general public appeal.

M. N. BAKER.¹

✱

A Suggestion for the Improvement of the Liquor Traffic.—There are indications in various parts of the country that the brewers are contemplating a severance of their hitherto more or less close relations with the dealers in distilled liquors.

At present this is not an easy matter because saloon keepers get larger profits from the sale of distilled liquors than from sales of beer; but the activity of the Prohibitionists and of the Anti-Saloon Society seems to have aroused a feeling among the brewers that their own trade has received blame which rightly belongs to the other branch of the business. The connection of the brewing interests with the saloons is so close that

¹ President, board of health, Montclair, N. J.

a general change of heart in this respect would be a factor of importance in aid of the temperance movement.

A prominent brewer in Buffalo reports that he has successfully tried the experiment of abolishing the bar in a large saloon under his control and has dropped the free lunch and somewhat improved and enlarged the bill-of-fare, making a moderate charge for all viands furnished. He reports that the profit made in this way balanced the loss of the special bar trade, and that, incidentally, the result has been an increase in the amount of beer sold, and a marked diminution in the sale of distilled liquors. It would seem that there is a subtle connection between the American bar and the use of distilled liquors. This appears to the writer a hopeful straw in the direction of improvement in the liquor traffic.

CAMILLUS G. KIDDER.



Cleveland and Seattle Centralize Social and Philanthropic Agencies.—As a result of the efforts of the Cleveland chamber of commerce, the philanthropic agencies of Cleveland have been brought together in a federation for charity and philanthropy which is to serve as a clearing-house for the affiliated associations and their donors. Under the plans of the federation, the innumerable appeals made each year by the individual agencies will be pooled into one which will be made by the federation. Tags, tickets, benefit bazaars, fairs, entertainments and balls will be done away with. The management of the federation will be in the hands of a board of thirty members: ten elected by the philanthropic agencies; ten elected by donors making themselves responsible for definite contributions to the funds of the agencies through the federation; and ten appointed by the president of the chamber of commerce. In Seattle, a central council of social agencies has been created for the purpose of promoting fellowship among the agencies, social intelligence, and social efficiency through the gevention of duplication.

Wisconsin Social Center Movement.—

Under the stimulative influence of Carl Beck, social center director of the public schools of Superior, the social center movement in Wisconsin is pushing beyond the limits of the city and is invading the rural districts. Not only is Superior to have an organized system of civic and ward improvement clubs, constantly supplied by a lecture bureau of local talent and assisted by a clipping bureau on civic, social and municipal matters, but the rural schools of the state will become the social centers where farmer' clubs will meet weekly or monthly to consider rural problems such as education, road improvement, county taxation and other questions, which today are largely settled at the county seat. A large exposition representing all of the organizations and industries of the city is now being planned.



Our Country and the Immigrant.—

New York City and Mt. Vernon are fostering movements for assisting the immigrant in preparation for citizenship. These movements aim at a better adaptation of school and library facilities to the needs of the immigrant and creation of opportunities for the immigrant to hear in his own language simple, plain talks upon his problems in this country and the institutions of his new homeland.



Negro Segregation.—The St. Louis Civic League has adopted a resolution opposing the proposed ordinance segregating the negroes of St. Louis. The committee in reporting on the matter declared:

Our committee is unanimously of the opinion that the problem of the relation of white and colored people cannot be solved by crystallizing prejudices into legislation. The proposed law frequently would prevent colored people from improving their condition by moving into better neighborhoods. We cannot believe that any broad minded American can regard the legal segregation of races as American or Christian.

VIII. PERSONAL MENTION

Reginald H. Thompson, City Engineer of Seattle.—In the rapid development of western communities from smaller settlements into fully developed metropolitan cities, particularly those of the Pacific coast, the individuality of the small group of citizens who directed their affairs has done more in many instances to make for the success of these communities than their geographic situation. A marked incident of personality dominating the growth of community life is that of R. H. Thompson, who for many years had in hand the destinies of Seattle, the great metropolis and sea port of Puget Sound. During the period with which Mr. Thompson was connected with the Seattle, the most unprecedented development occurred from a small town of several thousand, to a community of 250,000 people covering an area of 57 square miles, with a fully developed sewer system; a water supply unequalled for its purity and volume; 177 miles of street pavement; a municipal electric power plant of 14,000 horse power; a model building code, etc.

Mr. Thompson was born at Hanover, Indiana, March 20, 1856. He received his education at Hanover College, taking the full classical and scientific courses, graduating in 1877. In 1880 Mr. Thompson came to Seattle and in the fall of 1881 to 1883 served as deputy surveyor for the city and deputy county surveyor for King County. Through his work as surveyor of the city from 1884 to 1886 he obtained accurate and valuable information of the varied topography of the city. For three years he was assistant engineer of a railroad project east of Lake Washington, during which period he spent a portion of his time in the city of Spokane. On finishing his railroad work in 1889 he opened a private office in the city of Seattle and engaged in town plat work and mineral surveying.

In May 1892 he became city engineer for Seattle, which position he held until November, 1911, when he entered the

service of the Canadian government as engineer for Strathcona Park, Vancouver Island.

During the latter part of Mr. Thompson's connection with the engineering department he was subjected to constant criticism by one of the Seattle daily papers. This criticism was always derogatory and exceedingly vindictive in character. He had at one time drawn upon himself the disfavor of the editor and combined with the element of discontent of those endeavoring to obtain special favors this, made it exceedingly difficult to continue the broad constructive policy that the city was then pursuing. Mr. Thompson however, ignored these criticisms and continued his work undisturbed.

Quoting from Mr. Dimock, the present city engineer:

I think Mr. Thompson's success has been due to the fact that he is a tireless, patient and persistent worker, always seeking to extend his knowledge on all topics which concern a city's growth; second, that he has had ample time through the early years of his administration for a thorough study of the problem of Seattle's future. He came to believe intensely in the fact that Seattle was to become a great city. With absolute faith in its future, he worked steadily and tenaciously toward his ideals with a definite program, regardless of obstacles and undismayed by temporary reverses. No doubt his vision of what the city should be enlarged and grew from time to time as he had opportunities for study and for travel, but he had always in his mind a well defined general program, to the development of which he steadily worked. He has also a practical sagacity and knowledge of human nature which enabled him to impress others with his views and use them as instruments for the carry-out of his plans. I should say that these two things—first, his ideal, and second, his practical sagacity in the working out of these ideals, are his leading characteristics.

It was in attacking the problem of creating an adequate business area that Mr. Thompson perhaps deserves most

credit. The work was of such magnitude that it took many years to mature, and unless there had been a definite program and a strong hand, changing policies and avaricious contractors would have made the cost of this work so great that there is very little doubt that it would never have been completed. Mr. Thompson always insisted that the main traffic of the city would be forced by virtue of its topography to travel in a north and south direction. He sought consistently to provide such arteries as would open up the city in these directions. The great Northern Railway Company at one time sought to build its terminal yards in such a manner as to prevent the possibility of extending these arterial highways, and through Mr. Thompson's efforts Mr. James J. Hill was induced to modify his plans and First, Fourth and Sixth Avenues which have now become the great traffic streets of the city were left open. The city to the north of the then business area, was obstructed by a hill 135 feet high, called Denny Hill. First Avenue was graded in 1890 and no further work was done due to the panic of 1893 until about ten years later, when a regrade of Second Avenue was agitated. The success of this project from a real estate standpoint lead to a much vaster scheme of regrade, including Third, Fourth and Fifth Avenues, and this is known as the Denny Hill regrade area, and these avenues and streets are now paved and lighted. At the same time was undertaken the Jackson Street and Dearborn Street regrade, which latter undertaking was made a part of the Harbor Island development which used the material for filling, the work being accomplished by means of hydraulic sluicing. The total area thus regraded is approximately 620 acres, and is ideally located for downtown business development.

Perhaps more than anything else the development of the Cedar River water, light and power system brought Mr. Thompson into the public eye. There is no doubt that other men in his department and in the affairs of the city as-

sisted him greatly in his work, but he was the master-mind which correlated the data and he was able to keep the execution of the work along definite and constructive lines. In 1890 there developed strong opposition to the city's acquiring and developing its own system; private companies then, as are now, endeavored to prevent the city from developing these projects.

Mr. Thompson, to quote from Mr. Dimock, "threw himself heart and soul into the fight for municipal ownership, and he carried the day." The existing private company at that time was charging from \$1.50 to \$2.50 a month for a single water tap without sprinkling privileges. The rate now is 50 cents per month. A few years later a charter amendment was secured with the necessary ordinances providing for the installation of the Cedar River light and power plant. The effect of the installation of this system has made a reduction in the rate for residence lighting from 20 cents per kilowatt to about 5 cents per kilowatt. There is no doubt that some reduction would have been made if the municipal plant had not been installed, but this municipal plant put into the hands of the people the power of controlling and regulating rates that in no other way could it have been done so advantageously. The result has been that the citizens of Seattle are now paying for their light about one-half of what other people are paying by the coast cities supplied by private enterprises. In all these undertakings whether street paving, sewer contracts, or contracts for the regrading, no charges have ever been substantiated of misappropriation of funds. The work has been carried on uniformly with foresight, and has been executed with thoroughness unprecedented in the works of a public character in American municipalities. Quoting further from Mr. Dimock "It is no small tribute to Mr. Thompson's rugged integrity that Seattle should have been free from any scandals in its many works department."

There were no projects of magnitude undertaken by the city with which Mr. Thompson was not connected. He was very largely consulted during the progress of the bill creating a port commission whose function it was to develop the port facilities and establish equitable relationship between public and private enterprises. In March, 1910 a charter amendment was passed by the city creating a plans commission, whose duty it was to procure plans for the arrangement of the city with a view to such expansion as may meet probable future demands; taking into consideration the improvement and changes in public utilities and lines of transportation by surface, underground and water, the widths and grades of arterial highways necessary for the best treatment of the city, location for public buildings and municipal decorations, etc.

Mr. Thompson was appointed from the board of public works as one of the 21 plan commissioners. He worked untiringly for the preparation of this report and gave his unqualified support in furthering its adoption. The same elements which opposed Mr. Thompson, opposed the adoption of this report, which unfortunately was voted down by the people. The Seattle Times attacked the report and stated that it would cost the city \$100,000,000 and bankrupt its citizens. As no newspaper came to the active support and as the body of citizens who understood the importance of city planning was small; there was no way of informing the voters. A small group of advocates for the plans including Mr. Thompson gave illustrated talks at all the improvement clubs and made as strenuous a campaign as it was possible in support of its adoption. The plan if adopted would have taken the control of the city's growth out of the hands of a few interested property owners and put it in the hands of the people. Mr. Thompson was always found on the side of the broader citizenship and with those who were working for the general civic development.

CARL F. GOULD.

Travis H. Hoke who has been assistant secretary of the St. Louis Civic League since January, 1912, will be the director of the publicity bureau of the Conference of Federations, which represents practically all the larger federations of, associations in St. Louis. Among the organizations supporting the publicity bureau are the Civic League, the Federation of Churches, the School Patrons Alliance, the Central Council of Civic Organizations, the Central Council of Social Agencies, the Federation of Catholic Societies and the Social Service Conference. The Conference will issue a publication *Public Affairs*.

✱

Reginald Mott Hull has resigned the secretaryship of the Citizens' Taxpayers Association of Cambridge, Mass., and has gone into business. He has been elected a member of the executive committee and so will keep in touch with the work which he has so successfully managed for four years. His successor as secretary is Donald Justin Lynn.

✱

Robert E. Kenyon has retired as general secretary of the Chicago Association of Commerce to become superintendent of public service of Cook County. As such he will make the purchases for all the institutions of the county, some half dozen in number, amounting to about \$3,000,000 a year.

✱

Clinton Rogers Woodruff is taking the course of Prof. Henry Jones Ford in Municipal Government at Princeton during the present semester. Professor Henry Jones Ford has been granted a leave of absence to study political conditions through the country.

✱

Rev. Alan Pressley Wilson, a priest of the Episcopal Church, has been elected president of the Lykens-Wicon-

isco Board of Trade, Lykens, Pa. It is the first time in the history of Pennsylvania that a clergyman has been thus honored.

*

Dr. S. G. Lowrie of the University of Cincinnati has, at the request of Governor Cox, been granted a leave of absence so that he may work with the Ohio legislature in the founding of a legislative reference bureau.

*

Dr. Clyde L. King of the University of Pennsylvania has been delivering a series of lectures before the New Century Club of Philadelphia on "Some of Philadelphia's Governmental Problems."

*

Albert de Roode, formerly civic secretary of the Civil Service Reform Association of New York, has been appointed by Mayor Gaynor to take charge of the examining board of plumbers.

*

Dr. Frank A. Wolfe of the federal bureau of standards, Washington, D. C., has been appointed chief of the department of social economy for the Panama Pacific Exposition.¹

*

Robert D. Jenks of Philadelphia was elected chairman of the council of the National Civil Service Reform League in succession to the Hon. Charles J. Bonaparte.

*

E. H. Bennett of Chicago is now engaged on city plans for Brooklyn, New York and Detroit. Plans for Minneapolis and Portland, Oregon, have been finished.

¹ For information concerning the scope of this work see NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. II, supplement to the January issue, p. 33.

John Nolen of Cambridge, Mass., is working on plans for the following cities: Scranton, Pa., Erie, Pa.; Schenectady, N. Y.; New London, Conn.; Keokuk, Iowa.

*

Robert Catherwood, president of the Chicago Civil Service Reform Association, has been appointed a member of the Chicago civil service commission.

*

Mrs. D. C. McCan, president of the Friday Morning Club of Los Angeles, has been appointed a member of the Los Angeles civil service commission.

*

Prof. Charles E. Merriam of the University of Chicago is a candidate for nomination as alderman at the coming municipal election in Chicago.

*

Mrs. Melville F. Johnston, of Richmond, Indiana, has been made chairman of the committee on art of the General Federation of Women's Clubs.

*

Rev. Cyrus Flint Stimson of Waterville, Maine, has been elected secretary of the American Playground and Recreation Association.

*

Everett P. Wheeler has been elected president of the New York Civil Service Reform Association to succeed the late Silas W. Burt.

*

Mayo Fesler, secretary of the Cleveland Civic League, has been elected secretary of the Cleveland charter commission.

*

Scott R. Dekins has been appointed assistant secretary of the St. Louis Civic League.

DEPARTMENT OF LEGISLATION AND JUDICIAL DECISIONS

EDITED BY JOHN A. LAPP

Legislative Reference Department of the Indiana State Library

RICHARD W. MONTAGUE, Esq., Portland, Ore.

In charge of Judicial Decisions

Constitutional Amendments.—During the year 1912, 203 amendments to state constitutions were submitted to the people of the various states for ratification. Of this number, 118 were adopted. Of the whole number, 203, were fifteen relating to cities and towns alone; ten relating to cities, towns, counties and other minor civil divisions, and seven relating to all elective officers in the state including cities.

An examination of the fifteen relating specifically to cities shows that the three which failed of adoption were as follows: Arkansas, permitting cities and towns of more than 1000 population to issue bonds for municipal improvements; Minnesota, granting to cities and villages the right to frame and amend their charters; Missouri, increasing the constitutional tax rate in certain specified municipalities.

Among the twelve relating to cities and towns alone which received popular approval, seven related to home rule charters. Colorado extended the privilege of home rule charter making already granted to a limited extent;¹ Nebraska and Texas granted the same to all places of over 5000 inhabitants; Michigan untangled a peculiar constitutional situation by expressly permitting cities and villages to amend existing charters without a general revision of the charter through convention; Virginia adopted an amendment which granted a measure of home rule, but any such charter "must be such as the general assembly may deem best;" Ohio in its series of thirty-three amendments adopted in September,

1912, dealt at length with municipalities, a subject much vexed of late in that state. Municipal corporations were divided into cities and villages, the line of demarcation being fixed at 5000 inhabitants.²

Of the six remaining amendments relating specifically to municipalities, one in Georgia relates to the abolishing of justice courts in certain cities, two in Virginia to the election of revenue commissioners and treasurer in cities, one in South Carolina permits a specified town to exceed the constitutional debt limit of 8 per cent and two others in the same state permit specified cities and towns to levy special assessments to pay for public improvements.

Ten amendments of the year apply alike to cities and to the state or some other civil division. Seven such relate to finance. Of the whole number, ten, five were defeated. Among those adopted was one (Arizona) regulating the debts of cities, counties and other local divisions; one (Wisconsin) extending the time of extinguishing the debt of certain cities and counties; one (Louisiana) relating to public improvement bonds of parishes, cities and various minor divisions; one (Arizona) permitting the state and cities to engage in industrial enterprises; and one (Wisconsin) authorizing the state and cities to acquire lands. The defeated five included two (Louisiana) giving parishes and the cities authority to exempt certain kind of property from taxation; one (Utah) changing the limit of indebtedness for counties, cities and towns; one (California) for the consolidation of county and city governments in

¹ See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. II, p. 121

² See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW vol. I, p. 715

certain cases and one (California) extending the home rule principle in matters of taxation by permitting counties, cities and other local taxing authorities to levy taxes for local purposes according to any system which they may see fit to adopt and to classify property for purposes of taxation provided that such taxes be uniform for each class and that no tax to meet future expense or indebtedness shall be levied on property reserved for state taxation.

Cities were also affected by amendments voted on in seven states and adopted in five, providing for the removal of public officers in general by means of the recall. The states ratifying these were Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, Nevada, and Washington. Those rejecting were Arkansas and Louisiana. The Idaho, Louisiana and Washington amendments did not extend the recall to judges.

The most salient feature of the year progress in the field under review are the larger proportion of the whole number of amendments devoted to the cause of municipal home rule, and the almost universal ratification of such proposals when made.

FRANK G. BATES.¹



Governors' Messages, 1913.—In the messages of the governors of the various states transmitted to their legislatures at the opening of the sessions of 1913, the affairs of cities receive a fair measure of consideration. Three subjects stand out distinctly as commanding attention: public utility regulation, municipal home rule and municipal finance. While a subject state-wide in scope public utility regulation is obviously of especial interest to cities. The governors of no less than seventeen states made recommendations on the subject looking toward either the inauguration of the policy of utility regulation by commission or some amendment of existing laws on the subject.

¹ University of Indiana, Bloomington, Indiana.

In the following states the creation of a commission is called for: Iowa, Indiana, Maine, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Missouri, Pennsylvania and West Virginia. In Michigan and Montana it is suggested that the powers be conferred in the railroad commission, and in Idaho combined with the tax commission. Two commissions are suggested in Illinois, one for Chicago and one for the rest of the state. Among the recommendations for the extension of powers of existing authorities are these: New Jersey, to give discretionary power in the matter of grade crossing abolition; Ohio, to give power to make a valuation of physical properties, and Rhode Island, to include not only the valuation of physical properties, but to supervise security issues, require uniform accounting and inspection of equipment. Extensions of the power of the public service commission of Wilmington is suggested in Delaware.

Municipal home rule suggestions take these forms: New Jersey, to give wider range of freedom in local affairs; Delaware, to give Wilmington a new charter with extended powers of home rule; Michigan, to give greater liberty in respect to the initiative, referendum and recall in the general city law; Missouri, to give to the larger cities the right to select their own excise and police officers; New York, to give home rule to cities of the second and third classes and recommending a cessation of legislative tinkering with city charters. Pennsylvania, to give a "larger measure of home rule and greater freedom of action" for third class cities; Ohio, to enact laws under the recent constitutional amendment permitting to cities a choice of either the business manager, commission or short ballot federal plans of government.

That the importance of uniformity in accounting supervision of accounts is forcing itself upon public attention more widely is shown by the following recommendations: Illinois and New Jersey, that uniform systems of accounting be established; South Dakota, that the ex-

isting accounting law be extended to include county and municipal offices; Oregon, that the office of auditor of public accounts be established; Rhode Island, that not only uniform accounting and reports be required, but that, following the example of Massachusetts, audit of town accounts be made on request of the municipality and that supervision be extended over the form and issue of town notes. The governor of Washington recommends the abolition of the bureau of inspection and supervision of public offices and the appointment of a committee of accountants to devise a system of uniform accounts for counties and cities. The work of supervision was to be placed under the state auditor. In Connecticut it is suggested that general borrowing power be conferred on cities and boroughs within a fixed limit on referendum. Non-partisan nominations in cities are recommended in both Pennsylvania and Washington; commission government to be made permissive for second class cities in Missouri; measures for greater efficiency of civil service regulations in cities of the second and third classes in New York; the annulling of all exclusive franchises existing and their prohibition in the future in South Carolina; the making effective an existing law for the censorship of moving picture films in Pennsylvania; the establishment of municipal museums of safety appliances in New York, and the appointment of city, police, borough and town judges by the governor with the confirmation of the legislature instead of by election in Connecticut, are the remaining recommendations in the field of city government.

FRANK G. BATES.¹



Traffic Regulations and the Use of Streets by Pedestrians.—The safety of the streets for pedestrians has been the subject of legislation both specific and general by large cities, and in one or two of the larger municipalities special traffic

policemen are assigned to the care of the pedestrian traffic aside from the regular vehicular traffic.

There are a great many regulations that are common to all cities. Vehicles are not allowed to be ridden or driven on or across any sidewalk except a regular marked crossing. The speed limit varies in certain districts and at special times of the day. The specified limit for public bridges is four miles per hour, while for the congested districts the limit of speed on the regular streets is from six to ten miles. In other districts the limit runs as high as eighteen miles per hour, except for physicians, the city fire department, and the hospital service. Motor vehicles must be provided with gongs or some sufficient alarm signal and all vehicles must be provided with lights between sunset and sunrise.

The board of police commissioners in American cities has supervision of all traffic. Pedestrians and drivers of vehicles and cars must at all times comply with any direction by hand or voice of any member of the police force as to placing, stopping, starting, approaching or departing from any place.

Oakland, California, provides that no driver shall approach within four feet of the running board or lower step of any street or interurban car that may have stopped to take on or discharge passengers. St. Louis has considered a similar ordinance, but the traffic squad in the congested districts prevents vehicles passing stopped street cars as a matter of precaution.

A strict provision of the Oakland ordinance is the restriction of peddlers' carts or wagons for the use of vending merchandise. Such carts are not allowed to stand in any street or on any sidewalk.

Boston regulations are typical and guard the safety of people on the streets very well. The road-beds of highways are primarily intended for vehicles, but pedestrians have the right to cross them in safety, and drivers of vehicles must exercise all possible care not to injure

¹ University of Indiana.

them. Persons are urged to cross streets as nearly as possible at right angles preferably at regular crossings. This law adds greatly to safety, facilitates traffic and makes it much less difficult for the horses, which often have to be reined in suddenly and painfully in order to avoid careless and unthinking persons. Special efforts to expedite traffic on sidewalks directs pedestrians to keep to the right while walking and when stopping for any purpose to do so on the side near the curb and not in the way of a crossing.

The rules of Boston are both specific and general. The specific rules are intended to apply to the congested part of the city and are to govern in the streets and places referred to, while the general rules are intended to apply to all sections of the city. No vehicle, except in an emergency or to allow another vehicle or pedestrian to cross its way is allowed to stop in any public street except close to the curb, and near no intersection of a street. Vehicles can not be left standing in public streets for more than twenty minutes, except in case of a physician attending the sick, or a licensed cab or truck, when the owner holds a license from the board of street commissioners, authorizing him to occupy a part of the street for the sale of merchandise. Certain public streets and squares are specified as places for the exchange of merchandise. On certain specified streets no vehicle is allowed to stand for more than five minutes. The city is now considering a proposal submitted by automobile associations asking that parking places be established where vehicles may stand for a longer time than present traffic regulations allow, this for the benefit of the public who come to the business districts for shopping purposes.

There is an ordinance prohibiting the standing of people in the streets for a period exceeding five minutes at a time. Street crossings are numerous, being placed at every intersection of the street. Where the pavement is continuous there are no marked crossings.

There are a number of streets designated as "one-way streets" and on these streets vehicles can move only in such direction as is specified.

Delivery of coal, ice, barrels or kegs, or the backing up of vehicles to the curb, collection of garbage, refuse, waste material, cleaning of cess-pools and opening of manholes is prohibited between 9 a.m. and 5 p.m.

Pittsburgh marks crossings on block pavements by large crossing stones but asphalt streets are not marked at the crossings. The director of public safety may specify streets and certain areas restricting the handling of certain materials and traffic as in the case just mentioned of Boston allowing certain exceptions in emergencies.

The traffic regulations of Chicago direct pedestrians to cross streets at regular crossings and at right angles. They should wait for the signal from the traffic policeman whenever near his station and move only in the direction of the traffic.

Horse-drawn vehicles have the right-of-way over power-driven vehicles, street cars excepted, they have the right-of-way between crossings over all other vehicles. Drivers of all vehicles proceeding upon the street car track are required to turn out upon signal from the motorman or conductor of the car. During blockades or stoppages a clear space of ten feet must be kept open between the cars opposite an alley or an intersection of the block if there be no alley. Drivers of vehicles overtaking street cars must exercise great care in passing not to interfere with or injure any passenger who may alight from the car. Vehicles and street cars must stop back of the cross-walk so as not to interfere with passengers or pedestrians. Drivers of all vehicles must sit in their vehicles so as to have a clear view of the traffic at all sides. No vehicle not in charge of a driver is allowed to stand in the business district between 6 a.m. and 7 p.m. for a period exceeding sixty minutes except in certain specified districts.

Horses are not allowed to be left untended in any street unless securely tied or fastened. Automobiles are prohibited from standing in any business district for a period exceeding sixty minutes. Continuous pavement streets are not marked to show places of crossing.

A. J. CUNNINGHAM,¹

*

Speed Regulations for Motor Vehicles.

It has been said that owing to the large number of deaths occurring annually from vehicular, motor and transportation accidents the streets and highways of our cities have become more perilous than a battlefield. Most marked has been the increase in the number of automobile fatalities. In a message to the Chicago city council on May 13, Mayor Harrison called attention to the great increase in the number of automobile and motor cycle accidents; and suggested the advisability of more stringent regulations controlling the operation of automobiles and motor cycles within the city limits. Chicago mortality statistics show that in the year 1907 there were but 16 deaths due to automobile accidents while in 1911 the total number was 75, or an increase of 368 per cent. The number of deaths from this cause in New York City in 1911 was 159.

As a result of Mayor Harrison's suggestion the city council passed three ordinances designed to insure the safety of pedestrians and the fixing of responsibility for these accidents. The most important ordinance was one prohibiting operators of motor vehicles and motor cycles "upon overtaking any street car which has stopped for the purpose of discharging or taking on passengers to permit or cause said motor vehicle or motorcycle to pass or approach within ten feet of said car as long as the said car is so stopped or remains standing for the purpose of discharging or taking on passengers." The other ordinances provide (1) that "the light or lights illuminating or reflecting upon the number plate

or plates with which a motor vehicle or motor cycle is equipped shall be controlled by a switch or similar device placed outside of such motor vehicle or motor cycle so as to be inaccessible to and beyond the control of any person riding therein or thereon, so that such switch or device controlling such light cannot be turned off by any occupant of such motor vehicle or any person upon such motor cycle while in motion," and (2) that "the license number plates in the rear of motor vehicles shall from sunset to one hour before sunrise be unobstructed, free from grease and dirt and plainly legible at a distance of 150 feet."

In New York City the special committee on speed regulations in a report made to the board of aldermen of July 2 found that the present city ordinances regulating speed are "antiquated, ineffective and inadequate." The ordinance regulating the speed of vehicles as reported by this committee provides (1) that no vehicle shall be driven at a speed or in a manner likely to endanger the life, limb or property of any person; (2) that the rate of speed shall not be greater than 15 miles per hour except on certain highways passing through sections undeveloped and sparsely settled where the rate shall be 18 and not to exceed 25 miles per hour; (3) that "upon approaching a bridge, or in turning a corner or intersecting public highways, or in passing a public school on school days between the hours of 8 o'clock a.m. and 4 o'clock p.m., the person operating, driving or propelling any vehicle subject to the provisions of section 1 of this article shall not proceed, nor shall the owner of any such vehicle driving thereon or therein, cause or permit the same to proceed at a rate of speed greater than 10 miles per hour, and in meeting, overtaking or approaching a street car which has been stopped for the purpose of receiving or discharging passengers, every such vehicle aforesaid shall be brought to a full stop at a point not less than six feet from such street passenger car, and shall not proceed and pass such street passenger car

¹ Missouri School of Mines, Rolla, Missouri.

between said car and the near curb or sidewalk until such street passenger car shall have proceeded." In addition penalties to punish reckless drivers are provided.

Detroit and Cleveland also have ordinances similar to that of Chicago requiring motor vehicles to come to a full stop whenever street cars are discharging or taking on passengers.

FREDERICK REX.¹



Censorship of Moving Picture Films.

—Certain municipalities have decided not to rely wholly on the decisions of such bodies as the national board of censorship, and have established or are trying to establish a system of legal re-publicity examination of moving picture films. Probably the most comprehensive and effective ordinance in force is that adopted in San Francisco, and reliable authorities report that its results have been beneficial. The ordinance provides for an advisory board, composed of five members, as follows: One member appointed by the mayor, one by the board of education, one by the police board, one by the society for the prevention of cruelty to children, and one by the moving picture exhibitors' association. This board must pass on all films intended for exhibition, and may prosecute violators of the ordinance. The board has the right of free entry to moving picture theatres. The censoring has been done by photograph but it is now proposed to run the films in the regular way before the board, a license fee of \$1 for each film being provided to defray the expense of operator, room and machine.

Berkeley, California, handles the problem by providing for an advisory committee which may inspect moving picture exhibitions and prosecute exhibitors of improper films, but which does no actual pre-publicity censoring. The committee is composed of the chief of police, the truant officer and a third member appointed by the city council,

and has the right of free entry to moving picture theatres. The wording of the ordinance follows very closely that of the San Francisco measure.

Seattle has a censorship board with little power, the right of free entry to theatres being denied. In Chicago the superintendent of police acts as censor. Permits are refused for improper films, and appeal may be made to the mayor whose ruling is final. The Chicago vice commission reports that this system has given good results in the way of eliminating the undesirable exhibitions. Detroit deals with the question in about the same way. In Pittsburgh the chief ordinance officer views most of the "first-run" pictures before they are exhibited.

The censorship question is at present receiving a great deal of attention in York. In 1912 an ordinance for the regulation of moving picture theatres, which provided for police censorship with appeal to the mayor, was defeated. Other similar measures have been proposed, and there are now a number of ordinances before the board of aldermen, dealing with the regulation of these theatres, and containing various provisions regarding censorship. One of these, the "Folks" ordinance, was passed almost unanimously by the board last December after various influences had caused the insertion of a censorship clause providing in the main as follows:

The bureau of license issues the permit for the exhibition of a motion picture but before such permit is issued the picture must be inspected and approved by a censor or censors authorized by the department of education from the teachers, examiners or supervising staff thereof, and a letter sent by the censor to the bureau fully describing the film in question. If the film is undesirable, the bureau of license must refuse to grant the permit. Appeal may be had to the Mayor. No charge is allowed for permits.

The ordinance was vetoed by Mayor Gaynor on account of this censorship section. The mayor expressed himself of the opinion that such censorship was

¹ Assistant city statistician of Chicago.

not warranted by the condition of moving picture shows, that it might even work actual harm, that it was contrary to the principles of our government and, moreover, illegal. Regarding this latter point, the counsel for the emergency committee submitted a memorandum to the effect that moving pictures should and can be rendered subject to the right of the state to control stage performances. A hearing has been held by the board of aldermen on these proposed ordinances, but at the present writing no further action has been taken.

In Kansas City, Missouri, the board of public welfare¹ has proposed an ordinance which provides for the examination of all moving pictures by an inspector of the Board before a permit for exhibition is granted. The board of public welfare itself would be the final judge in an appeal.

There has been some agitation in St. Louis on the censorship question, but no legislation has yet been actually brought before the municipal assembly, owing to difference of opinion as to who should constitute a censorship board. One proposition was to have the board composed of the superintendent of schools, a business man, representatives of the film companies and exhibitors, and the President of the council. At present, undesirable exhibitions are suppressed by the police on complaint.

In Baltimore an ordinance providing for film censorship was defeated in 1910.

In Canada, the Province of Quebec has established a board of censors, and no moving pictures may be shown anywhere in the province that have not been passed on by the board. The headquarters of the board will be in Montreal, where a hall will be provided for the exhibition and censoring of pictures. Expenses are to be paid from the proceeds of the tax on moving picture theatres.

ANDREW LINN BOSTWICK.²

The Common Drinking Cup and the Common Towel.—The dangers of the propagation of disease through the use of the common drinking cup were recognized as early as the sixteenth century in connection with the visitations of the plague, but the subject attracted no wide interest until the discovery of the bacteriological causation of disease. A period of agitation has led, in the last four years, to the enactment of a body of statutes and the promulgation of many administrative regulations on the subject, looking to the removal of this menace to the public health. The progress of this movement to July, 1912, with the laws and regulations thereon in force is reviewed in Bulletin No. 57 of the United States Public Health Service.

Down to the mid-summer of 1912 twenty-six states and one territory had taken action in the matter, either by law or through regulation of the health authorities. In nine states and one territory the action was by statute. These were Colorado, Connecticut, Hawaii, Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Hampshire and New Jersey. In seventeen states, viz., Idaho, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Michigan, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Carolina, South Dakota, Texas, Utah, Vermont, Washington and Vermont, the same end was sought by regulations of the state board of health. Six of the states specifically confer authority on the health boards to this end, while in the others the boards work under their general regulatory powers. A number of important cities have taken action by ordinance on this subject. Among these are New York, Buffalo, Albany, St. Louis, St. Paul, Toledo, Atlanta, Pasadena and Louisville. Certain railroads have also voluntarily abolished common drinking cups.

The application of these rules and regulations varies widely. In Texas the provisions apply only to railroads, in Indiana and Montana to schools and to

¹ See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. 1, p. 417.

² Municipal reference librarian, St. Louis Public Library, St. Louis, Missouri.

both schools and railroads in seven states. The more comprehensive laws include specifically one or more of these in addition to the foregoing: hotels, restaurants, steamboats, ferry boats, stores, parks, streets, factories, libraries, public buildings and institutions and theatres. Louisiana includes also "other publicly frequented places;" New Jersey makes it apply to "all places to which the public have the right of access." Only Colorado and South Dakota specifically mention churches. In Colorado common cups may be used anywhere "in case proper and adequate provision be furnished for sterilizing the same, and such cup be thoroughly sterilized after each use thereof." Massachusetts requires the furnishing of individual cups on trains and Missouri recommends the provision of them. Massachusetts has prohibited the use of the suction shuttle popularly called the "kiss of death" and the public use of lung-testing machines or other such devices which require the application of the lips.

Even more recently, on the conviction that a like measure of danger inheres in the use of common towels similar legislation has been enacted on that subject. Nine states have taken action previous to the legislative sessions of 1913. Three of these have acted through statute, viz., Connecticut, Massachusetts and Wisconsin, and six, Indiana, Kansas, Missouri, South Carolina and Washington by regulation of the state board of health.

As in the case of the drinking cup the scope of the regulation varies from schools in Indiana and railroads in Washington to "all places used by the public or where persons are employed." Missouri places under similar ban public combs and brushes. A number of cities, including Chicago, Buffalo, Detroit, St. Paul and San Francisco, have by ordinance abolished the common towel.

In several departments of the federal government, including the marine hos-

pitals, the common cup and towel have been dispensed with.

FRANK G. BATES.¹

✱

Chicago's New Bureau of Fire Prevention and Public Safety. On July 22, 1912, the Chicago city council passed an ordinance creating a bureau in the fire department to be known as the bureau of fire prevention and public safety. New York has organized a fire prevention bureau, which is almost entirely independent of its fire department. In Chicago, however, the bureau is wholly within the fire department and under the direct supervision of the fire marshal, with an assistant fire marshal in charge. Excepting a few technical men, known as fire prevention engineers, all of the field inspectors are detailed from the parent department and are taken from the civil service eligible list for lieutenants in the fire department. Hereafter every man before becoming an officer will have secured experience as an inspector in fire prevention.

The ordinance as passed is far reaching and comprehensive, embracing in considerable detail the following subjects:

Article I. Draft of ordinance creating bureau, designating employees and prescribing their powers and duties.

Article II. Classification of buildings.

Article III. Designating buildings and conditions under which automatic sprinklers shall be installed.

Article IV. Designating buildings in which inside or outside standpipes shall be installed.

Article V. Designating buildings and classes of business in which portable fire apparatus shall be maintained.

Article VI. Designating buildings and conditions under which private fire brigades shall be maintained, and fire drills conducted.

Article VII. Miscellaneous provisions for theatres.

¹ University of Indiana.

Article VIII. In fire escapes, exits, etc.

Article IX. Lighting and ways of egress in certain buildings.

Article X. Construction and Safety requirements for garages.

Article XI. Construction of dry cleaning plants and safety requirements.

Article XII. Construction and safety requirements for chimneys, stacks, flues, etc.

Article XIII. Regulating sale, storage and use of explosives.

Article XIV. Regulations for acetylene gas.

Article XV. Regulation of motion picture films.

Article XVI. Regulating manufacture, storage and sale of matches.

Article XVII. Regulating transportation, storage and handling of volatile oils.

Article XVIII. Miscellaneous provisions containing 80 sections.

The force of the bureau now consists of an assistant fire marshal as chief of the bureau, a fire prevention engineer in charge, a deputy fire prevention engineer in charge, three fire prevention engineers, one principal clerk, twenty-six first class firemen as fire prevention inspectors, and two stenographers. Politics and political prestige are entirely eliminated from the Chicago Bureau, all positions save that of the chief, who is appointed by the fire chief, being filled by open competitive civil service examinations.

FREDERICK REX.¹

✱

Chicago's New Police Ordinance.—On December 30, 1912, the Chicago city council passed an ordinance readjusting the police department of the city. The ordinance divides the entire department into two distinct bureaus, each subordinate to the general superintendent of police. The two bureaus created are (1) The active bureau, under the immediate supervision of the first deputy superintendent of police, and (2) the clerical, mechanical and inspection bureau which

is subject to the supervision of the second deputy superintendent of police.

The ordinance provides that the first deputy superintendent of police shall be a member of the police force and have charge of all matters pertaining to the enforcement of the municipal laws and ordinances, the prevention of crime and the apprehension of criminals. He also has control over the assignment and distribution of the police force and the regulation of street traffic.

The second deputy superintendent of police according to the ordinance "shall not be a member of the police force." He is charged with the general care, custody and inspection of the property and records of the department, the instruction of the members of the police force and of ascertaining and recording their relative efficiency, both individual and grouped and with the receipt and investigation of all complaints of citizens regarding members of the uniformed force. The censoring of moving pictures and public performances of all kinds is placed under the second deputy's supervision as well as "the supervision of the strict enforcement of all laws and ordinances pertaining to all matters affecting public morals."

FREDERICK REX.¹

✱

Standard Lamp Posts.—On January 27 an ordinance was passed by the Chicago city council providing for standard lighting poles for electrical street lighting. All lamp posts for electric lights are divided into three classes, namely (1) posts for commercial incandescent lighting; (2) posts for down town district arc lighting; (3) posts for outlying district arc lighting. The ordinance makes specific provisions concerning the quality, height, painting and equipment of the posts in each of the three classes. Before the erection of an electric lamp post in any public street application must be made to the commissioner of public works on a form prescribed by the department of electricity.²

¹ Chicago, Illinois.

¹ Chicago, Illinois.

² Frederick Rex.

II. JUDICIAL DECISIONS¹

Commission Government in Mississippi:—The validity of the statute enabling cities in Mississippi to adopt the commission form of government was upheld in *Mayor, etc., of the City of Jackson against the State ex rel Howie*,² against an assorted variety of miscellaneous objections, none of which have any necessary relation to the validity of the commission form of government. A visitor from another planet where cases are tried on their merits, disregarding extraneous questions (if haply there is such a place), would be filled with amazement quite unmingled with admiration at an examination of the large list of cases in which the question of commission form of government has been agitated. Among them has been urged about every objection that ingenuity could devise or meticulous technicality trump up, and by far the greater majority of these would be equally applicable to statutes of any other subject. It is impossible perhaps to keep all collateral questions out of a case and still more difficult to prevent litigants from resorting to any possible means of winning their cases, but a system which actually promotes and encourages the determination of important causes, even temporarily, upon grounds which have no connection whatever with the real point at issue; disposing of the cause without settling the grievance, is certainly wrong somewhere.



Amending Commission Charters.—The commission charter of Spokane, Washington, provided for its amendment by popular vote. It was contended in *State ex rel Hindley v. Superior Court*,³ that this power applied only to such revisory or supplemental changes as the working of the present charter might

suggest, and did not include amendments which altered or annulled the basic plan on which the government is founded—a curious belated echo of the argument on the reserved right to secede and thereby violate the original compact of Union which once rang loud through the country. The court held that it was not its function to classify amendments or draw the line between such as were in harmony with and such as were hostile to the basic principle of the charter, but that the whole question was a political one. This decision is one of many—notably the decision of the United States supreme court in the initiative and referendum case—which mark a tendency on the part of courts to withdraw from the extreme position in respect of the power of constitutional interpretation and of the construction of legislative acts which has been strongly criticised of late both in the study and on the street. It may not be true, as Mr. Dooley says, that the “shupreme court hears the illiction returns,” but it is certainly true that, however slowly and cautiously, they do yield to great currents of public opinion. The city of Spokane was permitted to vote upon return to the old form of government.



Swapping Water for Taxes.—The Kentucky court of appeals held in *City of Winchester. Winchester Water Works Company*,⁴ that an agreement between a city and a water company whereby the company furnished to the city water to an amount equal to the taxes assessed upon the system and franchises, is valid and not an unlawful exemption of the company from taxation. The decision is clearly correct and is supported by a large number of authorities. The policy embodied in the law is quite as certainly unsound. Nothing more pointedly marks the advance of business

¹ Prepared by Richard W. Montague, Esq., of the Portland, Oregon, Bar.

² 59 Southern Reporter 873.

³ 126 Pacific Reporter, p. 920.

⁴ 148 Southwestern Reporter, p. 1.

morals on the part of public service corporations than the increase of the practice of paying money for what they get and not collecting money for what they give, to and from all alike. "No passes nor discriminations in favor of public officers or bodies, gentlemen," said a member of a new public utilities commission, addressing a conference of managers the other day, "Let your dealings with them be on a strictly cash basis." The general laugh which followed was a recognition of the old system; the fact there was nothing conscious or embarrassed about it was certainly a tribute to the new. Short cuts in services or bookkeeping in public utility business are pretty sure to "short-change" somebody.



The Smoke Nuisance.—The smoke nuisance has won another round, or more accurately speaking, another point; this time in New Jersey. Jersey City adopted an ordinance declaring it unlawful to "permit the emission of dense smoke from any stack connected with any locomotive within the city limits which smoke contains cinders or other substance in sufficient quantities to cause injury to health or property." *Erie Railway Company v. Mayor, etc., of Jersey City.*¹ The court declared it to be "a fundamental proposition that the chartered right of a railroad to operate its line included the right to make such noise, smoke, and smells as are really unavoidable in the proper and careful conduct of its business, even if some injury to health or some damage to property be caused thereby." On this ground the court held the ordinance invalid and held further that a finding that more smoke was actually emitted than was necessary did not cure the defect. One might fancy this decision was based on the views of Dr. Woods Hutchinson in a current magazine to the effect that smoke is really pretty wholesome, and

except for the looks of it soot in very moderate quantities as we acquire in an ordinary smoke-laden atmosphere, is perchance a blessing in disguise. It should be said in justice to the court, however, that on the same day it sustained a conviction of the Erie Railroad Company under a state statute for maintaining a public nuisance in "emitting divers noisome, unwholesome, and dense smoke and noxious vapors from its engines and roundhouse in greater quantities than were required for the legitimate and proper use and operation of its railroad." In the latter case the court strongly intimates that even the constitutional right to use soft coal cannot be pushed to excess, and they speak this cheering language:

"We find nothing in the charters of the constituent companies of the defendant which concedes to it the absolute right of burning soft coal ad libitum regardless of the public right, and in the absence of such a concession we must assume that while the legislature granted to the defendant the right to operate a railroad this right carried with it no grant of power to commit a nuisance." The decision makes good reading. *State v. Erie Railway Company.*²



Devoting the Whole of One's Time to a City Office.—The requirement that a municipal officer shall devote his whole time to the duties of his office seems to be pretty strictly interpreted in England. A barrister writing for the *Municipal Journal* lays it down as the law that while a technical employee might prepare and read a paper at a meeting of his fellow engineers he would have to consult the city about taking any pay for it. He quotes a rule of the London county council forbidding any city official to publish a book on the title page of which or elsewhere it appears that he is such official. It may be surmised that that

¹84 Atlantic Reporter, 697.

²84 Atlantic Reporter, 698.

rule at any rate would not be often violated in this country for at least two good reasons. The London county council it appears has also a regulation prohibiting an employee to take out patents for inventions without the special consent of the council and on conditions as to its free use by the city if available for their purposes. It is strongly insisted that the intention to have the entire benefit of the employee's services is at the maximum in regard to principal officials and lessens in its force with the subordinate ranks; a doctrine which sounds incredibly democratic to the inhabitants of this democratic republic.



Making Cities Pay for Improvements.

—Decisions have been previously noted in the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW upon the liability of a city to pay for public improvements where the proceedings required to fix the liability of the abutting property owners had not been properly carried out, notwithstanding provisions both of the law and the contract that those doing the work should look to the fund derived from the benefited property alone. The decisions referred to were placed on the ground that it was the duty of the city to take the proceedings necessary to fix the liability in proper and legal form and that its failure to do so was a wrong which neither statute nor contract could excuse. The supreme court of Iowa in *First National Bank v. Emmetsburg*,¹ reaches the same result by a somewhat different route. It holds that in such a case the contract being fully performed and the city having had the benefit of the improvements is estopped to deny that it had power to make them. This doctrine depends upon the further holding that the making of such public improvements as sewers and street paving is an exercise, not of the city's public and governmental, but of its private and

proprietary powers, wherein it is practically a private corporation. The distinction is one difficult to maintain with any logical strictness or practical convenience, and the estoppel doctrine is very likely to bind a city with dangerous severity to bad or improvident contracts. The other doctrine, it is submitted, has the advantage in simplicity and exactness of application to the facts, and is especially preferable in that under it the city would probably not be burdened in any case beyond the reasonable value of the improvement without regard to the contract price. In either there is a marked tendency to require fair and honest conduct in the teeth of strict requirements of law.



The Dictagraph Again.—More councilmen have been getting into trouble with dictagraphs. In Atlantic City, New Jersey, one of these wicked inventions was installed in a room where a supposed wealthy promoter was separated from large portions of tainted money by members of the city's governing body desirous of transmuting base franchises into gold. A stenographer stationed without took down the conversation and read it later in corroboration of the supposed promoter, who was really a detective hired for the purpose. The reporter's evidence was admitted. It is hard to see how it could be excluded since it is a matter of physical demonstration that the instrument transmits the sounds in the room where it is installed—even very faint ones—to the stenographer without, and his testimony therefore stands on precisely the same footing as that of anyone who had heard the conversations while himself in the room. Rulings to the contrary, if any, must be put on the ground that there is not sufficient evidence that the instrument has been installed, or that the operator has heard the conversation over it. In any case the testimony has no peculiar value—more than if the listener had

¹ 138 N. W. Rep., 45.

bored a hole in the wall and put his ear to it. The efficacy of the instrument as a detector of fraud rests in the fact that it can be disguised as a typewriter, a filing case, or any article of furniture desired and deceive the unwary grafter. Suspicion of them is becoming pretty prevalent, however.



Municipal Ice for Cities.—The Georgia supreme court in the case of *Holton v. the City of Camilla*¹ has held that the issue of bonds by the city for the purpose of acquiring an ice and coal storage plant was constitutional. The court declared that such an act was constitutional because it is understood that a city has a right to bring water from a long distance so as to make it purer. Therefore in analogy to this right it has the further right to carry it if it can in pipes, "and if it be necessary to the welfare, comfort and convenience of the inhabitants that its temperature be lowered, it being used for drinking purposes, why cannot the city," the court asks, "provide for the delivery of a part of it in a frozen condition to be used in cooling such part of the balance as is used for drinking purposes? Is the difference between water in a frozen condition and in a liquid form a radical one? Upon what principle can the doctrine rest that liquid water may be delivered by the city to its inhabitants by flowage

through pipes, but that water in frozen blocks could not be delivered by wagon or otherwise? If the city has the right to furnish its inhabitants with water in a liquid form we fail to see any reason why it cannot furnish it to them in a frozen condition." Under its police power the court held that the city has a right to purify water. Warm water is just as deleterious to public health as impure water and therefore the city may cool it. The court further held that there is nothing in the objection that the city may be said to be engaged in manufacturing. Equally well might it be said to be manufacturing when by the use of a filtering process it changes impure water into that which is pure. "When in connection with its waterworks system it produces ice, it merely by certain processes changes the form and temperature of a part of the water supply by that system."²



The Attorney-General of Ohio has ruled that under the new constitutional amendments cities cannot engage in the business of manufacturing and distributing ice. He makes a distinction between public utilities such as gas, heat and light, street car and water works plants and ice manufacturing plants by declaring that the latter do not like the others use the public streets and thoroughfares.

² From Hubert J. Horan, Jr., of the Philadelphia Bar.

¹ 134 Georgia Supreme Court Reports, 560.

DEPARTMENT OF REPORTS AND DOCUMENTS

I. CRITICAL AND INTERPRETATIVE

EDITED BY JOHN A. FAIRLIE

Professor of Political Science, University of Illinois

State Public Service Commission Reports.¹—The movement started in 1907 by New York and Wisconsin toward the establishment of state commissions for the general regulation of public utilities has steadily spread until at present such commissions have been established in nearly a score of states. The reports and decisions of the more important of these commissions form the most valuable source of information upon the general subject of the regulation of public service corporations.

¹Report of the Public Service Commission, First District, New York, for year ending December 31, 1910, 3 volumes.

Reports of Decisions of the Public Service Commission, First District, New York, volume 1, 1912, 789 pp.

Fifth Annual Report, Public Service Commission Second District, New York, year ending December 31, 1911, 3 volumes.

Forty-third Annual Report of the Board of Railroad Commissioners, State of Massachusetts, for year ending December 31, 1911, 459 pp.

Index-Digest of Decisions of Board of Railroad Commissioners, Massachusetts, from 1870 to 1911, 115 pp.

Second Annual Report of Board of Public Utility Commissioners, State of New Jersey, for year 1911, 478 pp.

Report of Public Service Commission, State of Maryland, for year 1911, 724 pp. and index.

First Biennial Report of the Public Service Commission of New Hampshire for period ending November 30, 1911, Volume 1, 593 pp. and index.

Fourth Annual Report of the Corporation Commission of the State of Oklahoma for the year ending June 30, 1911, 822 pp. and index.

Twenty-first Annual Report of the Railroad Commission of Texas for the year 1911, 482 pp. and index.

Orders issued by the Public Service Commission of Ohio in formal proceedings from July 1, 1911 to May 1, 1912, 124 pp. and index.

Report of the Railroad Commission of California for 1912.

Pamphlets on Public Utility Regulation, issued by the National Civic Federation, 1912-13.

The report of the New York commission of the first district for the year 1910 was issued in three volumes, the first of which was noticed in the January, 1912, number of this REVIEW. The second volume contains the formal orders issued by the commission during 1910. The principal matters regarding which orders were issued by the commission were rates and fares, operation, service and equipment, reports to be filed by corporations, the abatement of nuisances and the elimination of grade crossings. The third volume of the report contains a compilation by the chief statistician of the commission of the statistics of transportation companies derived from the annual reports made by them to the commission. These reports were the first made under the new accountancy rules prescribed by the commission in 1908. An attempt has been made to analyze the returns and to draw conclusions. With regard to the relation between the increase of street railway traffic and the increase of population, the conclusion is reached that "traffic may be expected to increase in New York City at twice the rate of increase of population." The factors in this problem are illustrated by a number of interesting diagrams.

During 1912 the commission for the first district issued a volume containing all the opinions rendered by the commission in cases decided between July 1, 1907 and September 1, 1909. The opinions relate principally to such matters as the granting of franchises, bond issues, rates and charges, safety devices and transfers. The volume contains, at page 705, the opinion in the well-known Coney

Island rate case. At page 756 is printed the opinion of Commissioner Maltbie on the requirement of the adoption of a uniform system of accounts for transportation and lighting companies.

The New York commission of the second district differs from that for the first district chiefly in having to deal with a larger number of corporations, but of smaller size and capitalization. At the end of 1911 there were 940 public service corporations subject to the supervision of the former commission, of which 62 were steam railroads. In the report of the commission for 1911 it is stated that a fuller inspection of such roads was made by the commission in that year than in previous years, attention being directed not only to construction and maintenance as related to safety but also to sufficiency of service and general conduct of business. The commission has also pushed rapidly the work of eliminating grade crossings, the expense of which is borne in part by the state. A series of interesting tables is published in the report of the commission exhibiting the results of the investigation of the quality of gas furnished consumers and of the efficiency of telephone service. An appendix contains a plan for a uniform system of accounts for telephone corporations. Volumes 2 and 3 of the report contain abstracts of the reports made to the commission by all corporations under its supervision.

The board of railroad commissioners of Massachusetts has jurisdiction over steam railroads and street railways. The report of the board for 1911 contains a tabulation of the returns received from such companies and a compilation of the orders issued by the board. Among the investigations conducted by the board has been one as to the types of fenders used on street cars in the principal American and European cities. A general tendency is discovered toward the abandonment of the use of protruding fenders and the adoption of automatic wheel-guards. The report of the board is accompanied by a separate volume

containing a useful index-digest of the the reported decisions, precedents and and general principles enunciated by the board from 1870 to 1911.

The New Jersey board of public utility commissioners is an outgrowth of the former board of railroad commissioners. The transformation took place by an act of 1910, but the powers of the new board were by that act allowed to remain inadequate for effective work. In particular, the rate-making power was not granted. By an amendatory act of 1911, however, this defect was remedied, the jurisdiction of the board was expanded, and since that time it has taken on new life and activity. The problems with which the board has had especially to deal are commutation rates and charges for gas and telephone service. According to its report for 1911 the board has made substantial progress toward a satisfactory settlement of the question of commutation rates to New York City, through the coöperation of the interstate commerce commission. The report contains a synopsis of the decisions and orders of the board. It is recommended by the board that the public utility law be amended by the adoption of the device of the indeterminate franchise, similar to that in the Wisconsin law, to be compulsory for all new public utilities and permissive, where possible, for existing public utilities.

The report of the public service commission of Maryland for 1911 deals principally with the opinions and orders of the commission upon such matters as applications for authority to issue stocks and bonds, complaints of excessive or discriminatory rates, mergers of corporations, accidents and grade crossings. An appendix contains a report upon telephone rates in Baltimore.

Under a law which went into effect in 1912 the jurisdiction of the California railroad commission has been considerably enlarged so as to include street railways, gas and electric light companies and other public utilities in addition to

railroads. The number of members of the commission has been increased from three to five and they are now appointive by the governor instead of elective by popular vote, as was formerly the case. The enlarged jurisdiction of the commission undoubtedly increases its usefulness, as is indicated by its unusually full and valuable report. The commission has been engaged in making an exhaustive list of the public utilities over which it has supervision. It has heard numerous complaints as to service and petitions to increase rates and has disposed of such cases by the issuance of suitable orders. The work of the commission has been systematized and specialists have been employed to manage the technical branches of the work connected with public utility regulation.

The report of the corporation commission of Oklahoma indicates that that body has been principally occupied with rate cases. The orders of the Commission establishing railroad, express and telegraph rates have tended toward radical reductions, and in a number of cases have been set aside as unreasonable by decisions of the United States courts. The commission has represented shippers of the state before the interstate commerce commission in a number of complaints with regard to interstate rates. The report contains the text of the orders of the commission and statistics of corporations over which the commission has supervision.

The Ohio public service commission has issued a pamphlet containing the text of its orders issued in formal proceedings during the past year. These consist principally of orders issued in cases of applications of railroads and other corporations to issue stock and bonds.

The report of the railroad commission of Texas contains the orders issued and the tariffs and rules adopted and promulgated by the commission during the past year. In the appendices appear numerous statistical tables dealing with the railroads of Texas.

The department on regulation of interstate and municipal utilities of the National Civic Federation has recently conducted an investigation into the regulation of public utilities in the principal states of this country and in England. Examination has been made of state laws, court decisions and decisions of public utility commissions and digests of these materials have been prepared and issued in a series of pamphlets dealing with such topics as the organization of commissions, franchises, regulation of stock and bond issues, and regulation of service and rates. Special attention has been given in the investigation to the regulation of capitalization, the device of the sliding scale, profit sharing, and to the question of state versus municipal regulation. On the basis of the information collected a model public utilities law has been drafted.

J. M. MATHEWS.

University of Illinois.

✱

Reports of Municipal Civil Service Commissions.—One cannot examine the recent annual reports of civil service commissions in the most important cities of the country without a growing feeling of optimism. In cities like Philadelphia, where the merit system has been for many years a by-word and a laughing stock, it is now a real system with real merit. Elsewhere new, as well as the old, principles of civil service administration are being developed and improved and there is increasing recognition of the duty which civil service commissions must perform if they are to meet the insistent and intelligent demands for business-like efficiency in the public service.

The report of the Philadelphia commission for the year ending December 31, 1911, is an outline of the plans of work which the present commissioners, who came into office under Mayor Blankenburg on December 6, 1911, had mapped out for themselves and the principal

steps taken in the twenty-five days of their term. Discussing the question of classification, the commission points out that the exempt and non-competitive class had been unduly extended and said, "this commission resolved to advance the work of maintaining the competitive principle through reformation of both of these classes," and further on it points out that, "One of the earliest acts of this commission was to transfer from the non-competitive to the competitive class the clerical and other employees of the law department below the grades of assistant city solicitors. The commission began arrangement also to include under the competitive examination system the non-competitives generally in the offices of the mayor and directors of the executive departments and including the employees of the civil service commission's office who, under the preceding administration, had been placed in the non-competitive class." In the matter of promotions the present commission found that the old rule allowing the appointing officers to appoint any person on an eligible list established through a promotion examination amounted to nothing more than a non-competitive system and practically broke down the promotion system. "The present commission therefore planned a rule to be adopted early in January, 1912, for certification of eligibles to the appointing officer in the manner prescribed by law for making original appointments, requiring that he make his appointment from among the four highest upon the list and that each name be certified four times."

The physical requirements for patrolmen and firemen were found upon examination to be below the standards elsewhere. The commission therefore suspended work upon the examinations which had been held for these positions in October, raised the physical requirements, and then ordered all who had taken part in examinations under the old requirements to present themselves for a physical reexamination, which, if

passed, would allow them to enter the next examination without new application. Other evils which the commission says it intended in its new rules to correct were connected with the reinstatement of policemen and firemen, the excessive number of provisional appointments without competition because of the absence of an eligible list, and the faulty system of registration and certification of laborers. This last evil was particularly bad, because the rule in regard to the certification of laborers allowed the appointing officer to appoint anyone they pleased from the register, with the result, as the commission pointed out, that it "practically left groundless the hope of applicants to be appointed if unable to procure endorsers to influence the appointing powers." Another serious abuse in the same connection was the practice of assigning laborers to "clerical, skilled labor, or other work rightfully belonging to persons who have passed competitive examination." "To prevent the appointing officer from assigning laborers to positions in the competitive class and to confine them strictly to the class in which the law places them has been among the purposes of the commission in framing new rules generally to become effective as early as possible."

The report of the Chicago commission is of particular interest as indicating the extent to which that commission has developed efficiency in the service through standardization of work, grading of the service and investigations into the efficiency of the various departments. "The positions," says the report for 1911, "are now graded on a duties basis, schedules of grades, titles and salaries are uniform for positions in the engineering, clerical, police, operating engineering, fire and labor services, positions in the medical, inspection, supervising, skilled labor and labor services have been classified and uniform schedules of grades and titles adopted. Schedules of uniform salaries in the inspection, medical and supervising services are now before the commission for adoption."

The idea of departmental organization charts has been further developed and improvements in the methods of their preparation have been made. The commission points out that, "the preparation of these charts has served two purposes, one administrative and the other educational. Since preparing the first charts showing departmental organization and distribution of employees important changes have been made by means of consolidation and further co-ordination between different departments. In all cases the commission has coöperated with departmental officials and members of the city council in the analysis and presentation of constructive recommendations for the purpose of increasing the efficiency and economy of the administration and amending the same where such has been amended. Several department heads used the commission's analysis of departmental activities in making their appropriation estimates for 1912."

The efficiency division has conducted a number of investigations, the most important of which was the investigation into conditions in the police department, and "it has aided department heads in the solution of many problems in reference to the organization, system and methods of controlling efficiency of individuals and groups of employees in the service." Among the departments which have had the benefit of the expert services of the efficiency department are the commissioner of public works, the bureau of food inspection under the commissioner of health, the commissioner of buildings, and the public library.

In New York City the commission in its report for 1911 notes that, "the volume of the business of the commission continues to increase steadily and . . . the commission finds difficulty in satisfying the demands of the service and keeping within its appropriation." The statistics in the report show that there were 52,929 places under the jurisdiction of the commission, of which

29,204 were in the competitive class. During the year it held, including non-competitive and promotion examinations, 354 tests, involving the examination of 18,053 candidates.

Among the improvements which it notes particularly are the establishment of a bureau of investigation to examine into the character and record of candidates for patrolman and eventually for the entire service, and the extension and development of the promotion system. Referring to the promotion system and the efficiency records which form a part of the system, the report says: "Every candidate knows that his ability to rise in the service depends on his own merits. This is a splendid device for good government and for the recognition of ability and faithful service." The commission also points, with pardonable pride, to the high character and marked success of the promotion examination last year for chief of the New York City fire department, and says: "It is acknowledged generally that this is the most important position ever filled by competitive examination in this or any other country and the experiment, costly and exhaustive though it was, shows that practically any public office that does not involve the creation of and responsibility for administrative policies may be satisfactorily filled by intelligent and just competition."

Two long standing abuses which were corrected were the practice of allowing eligibles to waive their rights to other positions on the eligible list and alteration of efficiency records by department officers. The practice of recognizing "waivers" was without any recognition by law and resulted in pressure being brought to bear on persons who were at the head of eligible lists or were in line for promotion to get out of the way in order to allow the appointment or promotion of some favorite. The commission properly took the position that a waiver should be treated as a declination, which deprived the candidate of right to another certification for the

same position at the same salary, and the report says: "In one week that evil had come to an end in every department of the city government." Administrative officers were denied the right to alter efficiency records because to allow such alterations would break down the promotion system. The commission not only insisted that such alterations should not be made, but "decided that wherever records are not maintained properly and subject to frequent inspection by its (commission's) examiners no promotion will be allowed in that department and vacancies will have to be filled from open competitive lists."

In Kansas City, where the civil service law has been in operation a little over two years, the commission had to meet the difficult problem of filling *de novo* every position in the classified service. Its first annual report, dated January 16, 1911, which is the last report at hand, has a full statement of the purposes, policies and methods which the commission had determined upon. After careful study and consultation with experts, the commissioners agreed upon their main lines of policy described in part in their report as follows:

First, to employ as examiners for each examination a board of citizen experts—men of well recognized ability and integrity, specialists in the duties of the particular positions to be filled—who could cooperate with the commissioners and secretary in framing examination questions, conducting the oral examinations in person and in actually grading the papers Second, in starting the system it was deemed best to hold examinations for the higher positions first. Third, the board found it impossible under the circumstances to make a complete scientific classification of the city service. . . .

The board, therefore, attempted no further classification than that which is embraced in the various ordinances of the city creating the several positions and accordingly proceeded to hold examinations for the several positions in the different departments, taking them in order as they appear on the payroll in the comptroller's office.

Following these policies, the commission in its first six months held 148 examinations, in which 1,866 candidates took part, and filled 366 positions from the resulting eligible lists. The list of positions for which competitive examinations were held includes such important places as that of commissioner of street cleaning, superintendent of street repairs, city engineer, assistant city counsellor and superintendent of Swope Park. Specimen examination papers printed in an appendix to the report show that these tests were developed along highly practical lines.

Not the least interesting part of this report is the statement of the economy and efficiency which have followed the application of the merit system in Kansas City. In the office of the inspector of weights and measures the collections for the four months of September, October, November and December of the year 1910 amounted to \$1,018.70, as against \$853.55 for the corresponding months of the preceding year. "The market master certified by the board collected during the months of September, October, November and December, 1910, \$433.25 more market fees, \$1,198.55 more market rents and \$1195 more wagon rents than his predecessor during the corresponding months." The city license inspector showed "the astonishing increase in collections of his department for November and December, 1910, of \$13,638.51 over the corresponding months of the previous year." Numerous other instances of a similar sort are cited in this report.

In rather striking contrast to the report of the Kansas City commission is that of the Cleveland commission for the year ending December 31, 1911. The report is brief, taking only about two and one-half pages. The work of the commission covered the following points—appeals from dismissals, the holding of examinations and revision of rules relating to such matters as lay-offs and reinstatements, physical qualifica-

tions of patrolmen, emergency appointments, etc. With reference to the last-mentioned activity the Cleveland report reads as follows:

During the year the commission in a few instances secured outside assistance in the preparation of examinations, chiefly in connection with the more technical branches of the service. While the commission here make grateful acknowledgement of the valuable help received in these instances, it still believes it to be impractical to attempt to apply this method to the examinations generally.

The Municipal Association of Cleveland has severely criticised the commission for its insistence on the antiquated idea of the commissioners themselves setting and rating examination papers. The amount of work which this entailed upon the commission may be appreciated when it is considered that according to the report of the secretary the commissioners had to review approximately 18,000 examination papers and over 98,000 answers on a great variety of subjects. The Cleveland commission evidently has something to learn from Kansas City.

ROBERT W. BELCHER.

New York City.



Taxation of Land Values.—The United Committee for the Taxation of Land Values is a central organization composed of representatives from the English, Scotch, Welsh and Irish leagues. There are many subordinate leagues in England and Scotland. The fifth annual report of the United Committee speaks in a hopeful tone as it records the year's work. It calls attention to the general work of agitation and propaganda throughout the United Kingdom and prints a long and imposing list of meetings held in all parts of the country, addressed by members of parliament and others well known to the voters. It recites the work of the "land values" group in parliament and the presentation of the land and taxation reform memorial, signed by 170 members out of a total of

670, and notes the significance of the response of the prime minister that "he regarded the question of great importance, both in its urban and in its rural aspects, although in his opinion, the rural aspect was more urgent at the present time."

It records the victories at bye-elections, where at North-West, Norfolk, Holmfirth and Hanley, brilliant victories were won by candidates who stood unequivocally for the taxation of land values and who subordinated every other question to that one. And finally it shows a revenue account disclosing nearly £6000 received and disbursed in support of their cause.

To the average American, however great his interest in economic reform, it is a little difficult to understand the British situation, because he must constantly keep in mind the difference between America and Great Britain. Here we have 48 state legislatures competent to alter and amend state tax laws; there they have one imperial parliament which alone can deal with this question. Here we have land and buildings assessed regularly and taxed each year for the support of government. There they have the remnant of a "land tax" based on an assessment made two centuries ago and local taxes called rates imposed on tenants and occupiers in proportion to the rent paid.

Into this situation, the British land value taxers have interjected the idea of assessing and taxing land values. This seems so natural to us that we can scarcely understand the stir that it makes when it is proposed in a country where such a thing does not exist. But, as single taxers, they limit their proposal to the taxation of land values and not of improvements, and that can be perfectly understood here.

The finance act of 1909 (i.e. the imperial budget of that year) carried with it the valuation of all land in the United Kingdom and imposed a tax of a half penny in the pound on all agricultural land fit for suburban development. The

valuation of all the land in the United Kingdom is in progress, but sometime will be required for its completion. When it is completed there will probably be a still stronger demand for an increased tax on land values and for an act that will permit municipalities to impose local rates on land values.

E. L. HEYDECKER.



East St. Louis East Side Levee and Sanitary District.¹—An interesting and unusual method of carrying out and financing an extensive public improvement affecting a number of neighboring municipalities is being undertaken by the East Side Levee and Sanitary District. This district covers an area of 96 square miles forming part of what is known as the American Bottom on the Illinois side of the Mississippi River opposite St. Louis and includes the cities of East St. Louis, Granite City, Madison, Venice, Brooklyn, Mitchell, Nameoki and Cahokia in St. Clair and Madison counties, with a population of over 80,000. The low lands of this section have been subjected to the floods of the Mississippi River and its tributaries, doing immense damage to crops and lands as well as in the several cities and villages. After engineering studies by United States officers and a local association, an act of the Illinois general assembly of 1907 was passed under which the district has been organized. In 1908 the district was formed, by popular vote, and a board of five trustees elected.

The law authorizing this district is an adoptive act, of a type highly developed in Illinois as a means of overcoming constitutional restrictions. It follows some of the general principles of the law for the organization of drainage districts, but with important modifications somewhat like those in the act under which the Chicago sanitary and ship canal has been constructed. The district is a

distinct municipal corporation with power to levy taxes and borrow money over and above the financial powers of the cities and other municipalities in the same territory. This multiplication of overlapping authorities is one of the banes of local government in Illinois, but it seems to be the most feasible way of carrying out certain large public works under the provisions of the present state constitution.

To meet the conditions a series of related works have been planned and have been partially undertaken. These include the diversion of Cahokia Creek from its present course east of the river cities directly to the Mississippi River in the north of the district, levees along the river front and on the southern boundary back to the bluffs, and a system of drainage canals within the district. The whole work is estimated to cost \$6,600,000. The diversion channel has been completed, and the levee has been built from the diversion channel almost across the river front of East St. Louis.

Under the law the district trustees are authorized to levy an annual tax of 2 per cent on the taxable value of property in the district and to issue bonds up to 5 per cent of the taxable value. By the revenue law, the taxable value is one-third of the "full value" as determined by the assessors; and in fact is a smaller fraction of the true value of property. Under these provisions the trustees could issue bonds, at the present taxable valuation, for less than a million dollars, and levy less than four hundred thousand dollars a year in taxes. Under the usual method of issuing long term bonds, it would take about seventeen years to complete the work. To raise the funds more quickly an extraordinary use of the bonding power has been proposed and in part followed. Instead of issuing twenty year bonds, the trustees have borrowed up to the limit on one and two year bonds; and the taxes to pay interest and principal on these bonds must be levied, although this calls for a

¹ Proceedings of the Board of Trustees of the East Side Levee and Sanitary District, 1908-1912. Messages of President H. D. Sexton, 1911 and 1912.

higher rate of taxation than the normal limit of two per cent. By continuing this process, paying off and issuing half a million dollars in bonds each year, it is estimated that funds can be raised to complete the project in about ten years more.



Bibliographical and Library Notes.—The Division of Recreation of the Russell Sage Foundation (400 Metropolitan Tower, New York City) has issued as publication 121 a "Recreation Bibliography" of 37 pages. It is a classified, annotated, and select list aiming particularly to note titles that most definitely meet the demands of the present day. In the preface the publishers request to be advised of the appearance of new material on this subject as the bibliography will be revised from time to time. For the convenience of those ordering from the list a page and a half is devoted to an alphabetical list of publishers with addresses. Entries are frequently priced.

Recent numbers of *Special Libraries* continue of interest for their municipal affairs data. The June 1912 issue prints another bibliography of "Public Utility References," p. 133-136, a "Selected List of Recent Available Collections of Laws and Allied Material" which notes several compilations of municipal ordinances as well; its "Current References" include titles on charities, city planning, fire prevention, high schools, street lighting, etc., and its "Bibliographies" section notes recent bibliographies on city planning, excess condemnation, municipal welfare, and public utilities.

Miss Imhoff's paper on "Cataloguing for Legislative Reference Work" (September issue) applies almost equally as well to municipal reference libraries as far as principles are concerned; pages 154-158 present a list of references on motion pictures including laws and legislation and bibliographies noted include educational museums and the social evil.

The October issue's "References on Special Libraries" covers municipal reference libraries under the title "legislative reference."

The *American Library Annual* 1911-1912 (Publishers' Weekly Office, N. Y.) pp. 83-103 lists bibliographies that have appeared in 1911. Ten entries occur under the subject Municipal Government and many under specific headings for phases of municipal activity.

That public libraries in cities where there is no municipal reference library are alive to the general public interest in municipal affairs is evidenced by the numerous lists of references on various municipal topics that continue to appear in library bulletins and as separate publications in pamphlet form. A recent illustration is the Jersey City library's list of 22 pages on municipal government. What library bulletins for the last eleven years have been published on municipal subjects may be learned by consulting the "Index to reference Lists Published by Libraries, 1901-1906, inclusive" published in the *Bulletin of Bibliography* (Bost. Book Company) volume 4, 159-166, and volume 5, 17-20. The "Index" for 1907-08, 1909, 1910, 1911 will be found in the same publication as follows: 1907-1908 in volume 5: 125-126 and 149-152; 1909 in volume 6: 74-77; 1910 in volume 6: 177-180; 1911 in volume 6: 303-306.

These cumulations have been reprinted separately and may be obtained from the publishers of the *Bulletin*.

For earlier library bulletins a key to reference lists published will be found in Alice Newman's "Index to subject, Bibliographies in Library Bulletins to December 31, 1897," published as *New York State Library Bulletin*, Bibliography No. 14, Albany 1898.

The *Bulletin of the New York Public Library* for September, 1912, contains Part I of a "List of City Charters, ordi-

nances and Collectd Documents." The October *Bulletin* contains a "List of Works on City Wastes and Street Hygiene."

JOHN B. KAISER.

Urbana, Illinois.

*

Civic Surveys.—*Pittsburgh.* The Report of the Economic Survey of Pittsburgh, by J. T. Holdsworth, Ph.D. is a substantial volume of over 200 pages, with many illustrations, especially of workmen's houses in Pittsburgh and other cities. The survey was made under authority of the mayor and council, and embraces investigations in a wide range of topics, such as the cost of living, recreation facilities, social surveys, municipal taxation, uneconomical use of land, municipal economy and efficiency and municipal reference library. The detailed report is preceded by a summary of findings and recommendations. The first fundamental need is held to be the eradication of smoke, the second great need is for a large increase in the supply of comfortable sanitary workmen's homes.

The major portion of the report was submitted in manuscript in March, 1912; and it is published under date of May 15. A note by Mr. Holdsworth as the report went to press October 1 records that several of the important betterments recommended had been accomplished or were in process of early realization.

Atlanta. The committee on municipal research of the Atlanta Chamber of Commerce has published reports of a preliminary survey of the city government by Herbert R. Sands and S. G. Lindholm of the New York bureau of municipal research. One report covers the general organization and administration of the city government, except the health and educational departments, which are covered in the other report. While recognizing much to commend, the reports purposely emphasize the critical and constructive suggestions. The immediate steps urged are the establish-

ment of a bureau of municipal research and a simpler form of government and the adoption of more efficient business methods.

The Chamber of Commerce has also brought about the creation of the Atlanta Improvement Commission, including citizens and city and county officials, to undertake the preparation of a city plan for the development of the city.

Chicago. A report on appropriations and expenditures for the bureau of streets in the City of Chicago has been issued by the efficiency division of the municipal civil service commission, as the result of an inquiry conducted at the request of the finance committee of the city council. This is based on an investigation of the cleaning and repair of streets and the removal of garbage and other refuse, with an analysis of the distribution of funds by wards and a discussion of uniform standards and schedules, on the basis of which estimates by wards for the year 1913 were prepared.

Baltimore. The bureau of state and municipal research issued in January 18, 1913, report no. 2 on "The Baltimore Budget." This is a study of the receipts and expenditures of the city from 1900 to 1913, inclusive, based on the ordinance of estimates for the various years and the estimates of receipts on which the board of estimates based its action. The report is a 16 page quarto, illustrated with six charts.

*

County Administration.—The increased attention being given to problems of county administration is well illustrated by a number of reports on county affairs recently published. The Chicago bureau of public efficiency has added to its former publications reports on inquiries into the organization and administration of the clerks of the circuit, superior and county courts and the sheriff of Cook county, the growing cost of elections in Chicago and Cook County, and a protest against a contract for the purchase of voting machines.

The Municipal Association of Cleveland has published a report of an investigation of the coroner's office in Cuyahoga County.

An investigation into the affairs of Hudson County, N. J., made by order of Justice Francis J. Swayze on request of the board of chosen freeholders, has resulted in a series of reports made between June 77 and October 31, 1912, which together have been published in a pamphlet of 225 pages. These reports have been distributed through the Citizen's Federation of Hudson County, which has also published, in January 13, an illustrated comparison of appropriations and salaries from 1901-02 to 1910-11.



Mayor's Messages.—*New York.* The annual message of Mayor Gaynor to the board of aldermen dated January 23, 1912, includes a statement of the comptroller showing the condition of the city's debt on December 31, 1911, and a brief summary report from each department of the city government under the mayor for the year 1911. The department reports serve to illustrate the lack of systematic administrative organization in the city government. There are no less than twenty distinct departments or bureaus; and the absence of any effective correlation is indicated by the alphabetical arrangement, beginning with the commissioners of accounts and ending with the mayor's bureau of weights and measures.

Philadelphia. On September 19, 1912, Mayor Blankenburg submitted to select and common councils a message with suggestions and recommendations for increasing the current revenues and borrowing capacity of the city. On January 1, 1913, he issued a New Year's letter to the citizens of Philadelphia, outlining the accomplishments of the first year of his administration.

Minneapolis. The annual message of Mayor James C. Haynes, dated June 14, 1912, does not attempt to review the work of all the city departments, but discusses a few subjects of special im-

portance, including public utility problems, the police department and social and recreation centers.

Cincinnati. Mayor Hunt in his annual message of January 7, 1913, discusses, among other topics, the housing problem the newly established purchasing agent (called the greatest single administrative success of the year) and the work of an informal efficiency board, established to coordinate and control the work of the several departments.

Winnipeg. In his retiring message at the end of 1912, Mayor Waugh recommended a number of changes in the organization of the municipal government. The most important change proposed was that the members of the board of control should be elected for a stated office.



Associations of Municipal officials.—*League of Virginia Municipalities.* The report of the sixth annual convention held at Cape Charles, Va., September 14 and 15, 1911, includes, among others, papers on public health, commission government and city finances.

New York State. In the *Proceedings* of the third annual conference of mayors and other city officials held at Utica, N. Y., June 10-12, 1912, appear a number of interesting papers and discussions on such questions as home rule, the social evil and street railway franchises. Among the speakers may be noted: Lieutenant-Governor Thomas S. Conway, Prof. Paul H. Harris, Robert S. Binkerd, Delos F. Wilcox, and Clinton Rogers Woodruff. The appearance of such men at a gathering of municipal officials indicates a new note in the attitude of the officials to municipal problems.

*Kansas municipalities.*¹ The published report of the *Proceedings* of the fourth annual convention presents a full account of the papers and discussions, prepared by the Municipal Reference Bureau of the University of Kansas. Fifty cities are enrolled as active mem-

¹ See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. 2, p. 141.

bers of the League. The list of officers and committees indicates an active organization, fourteen committees being provided for various municipal problems.

The League of Pacific Northwest Municipalities. The *Proceedings* is a well printed and indexed pamphlet, including both the papers and discussions. Among the papers not previously noted in this REVIEW² may be mentioned the following—a municipal reference library, by Chas. G. Haines; regulation of public utilities, by Wm. J. Hagenah; and the practical working of commission government, by Mayor Hodges of Boise, Idaho.



Business and Civic Organizations.—*The Minneapolis Civic and Commerce Association* was organized in December, 1911 and with it there has been amalgamated the Publicity Club, the Commercial Club and Minneapolis Traffic Association, forming a strong central organization for the discussion of business and municipal problems. The first annual report, for the year ending October 1912, shows a well planned committee system; and a number of committees have already taken up important municipal betterments,—for example those on highways, smoke abatement, taxation, street lighting, fire prevention, public health and child welfare.

Massachusetts Civic League. In its annual report for the year ending October 31, 1912, most attention is paid to the problem of housing, including a discussion of housing laws and the report of the state housing committee. Other committee reports are on playgrounds and village improvements.

Boston Chamber of Commerce. Among the committee reports printed in the *Chamber of Commerce News* for November 18, 1912, may be noted those on municipal and metropolitan affairs (William Bennett Munro, Chairman), public health, and public utilities.

Woman's Municipal League of New York City. The Year Book for 1912 in-

cludes the annual report of the President, Mrs. E. R. Hewitt, and reports of the various committees and local branches of the league. Among the committee reports may be mentioned those on motion pictures, streets, the women's court and tenements.



Coöperation and Marketing.—The Wisconsin state board of public affairs has published in four parts, dealing with agricultural coöperation, coöperative credit, municipal markets and distributive or store coöperation. The section on municipal markets includes chapters in European, Canadian and United States cities. A summary cites among the advantages of municipal markets: lower prices, fresher produce, better enforcement of sanitary regulations, inspection of food, accurate weights and measures, competition, revenue to the city, and increased demand for truck farms. But the author considers that the most important function of the municipal market will be as a supplement to the present retail system rather than as a substitute for it. He also finds that the character of the population has much to do with making a municipal public market a success, and that if the people value convenience more than lower prices, public markets are likely to be a failure.

Public Markets.—Under the direction of Mayor Blankenburg, Dr. C. L. King of the University of Pennsylvania has made a study of trolley light freight service and Philadelphia markets in their bearing on the cost of farm produce. The main recommendations of the report are:

1. Better through trolley freight service from farm to city;
2. Removal of restrictions on bona fide farmers wishing to sell their goods in Philadelphia;
3. Stringent regulation of existing markets, coupled with the development of municipal markets where needed;
4. The development of trolley freight terminals on different sections of the city; and

5. A thoroughgoing revision of the present transportation and distributing facilities.

*

Iowa Applied History Series.—The State Historical Society of Iowa has begun the publication of a series of papers under the title of "Applied History." This will present a historical and comparative study of legislation on important topics of public interest at the present time. Volume I, already published, includes a brief statement of the series by B. F. Shambaugh, editor of the series, and short monographs on road legislation, by John E. Brindley; regulation of urban utilities, by E. H.

Downey; primary elections, by F. E. Horack; corrupt practices legislation, by H. J. Peterson, work accident indemnity, by E. H. Downey; and taxation, by John E. Brindley. While giving special attention to legislation and conditions in Iowa, each paper also presents a comparative and critical analysis of the laws of other states, with a discussion of standards set by such laws. Mr. Downey's paper on the regulation of urban utilities will be of most interest to the readers of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW; and forms what is perhaps the best brief discussion of the recent movement towards state administrative control of such utilities.

DEPARTMENT OF REPORTS AND DOCUMENTS

II. BIBLIOGRAPHICAL

EDITED BY MISS ADELAIDE R. HASSE

Chief of the Division of Documents, New York Public Library

General

MINNEAPOLIS, Minn. Civic and Commerce Association. First annual report. October, 1912. 140 (1) p. 8°.

MONTREAL, Canada. Commercial review of the season ending 30th November, 1912, showing the export trade from the port of Montreal in Canadian products. 181 p. 8°.

Compiled by the Commercial department of *The Gazette*, Montreal.

Automobiles

HUTCHINSON, R. W. The automobile in municipal service. (Municipal Engineering, November, 1912, p. 204-211, illus.)

ROLL call of cities operating automobiles. (Municipal Engineering, October, 1912, p. 238-251.)

Bibliography

LONDON, England. County Council. List of official publications. December, 1912. 16th issue. 48 p. 12°.

Address P. S. King and Son, Great Smith str., Westminster, London; gratis. A notice of all new official publications of the Council is given in the London County Council Gazette, issued weekly.

NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY. List of city charters, ordinances, and collected documents in the New York Public Library. pp. 1-4. A-S. (Bulletin N. Y. Public Library, September, November, December, 1912; January, 1913.)

Billboards

CITY CLUB OF CHICAGO. (Bulletin, December 16, 1912, p. 393-408.)

Billboard and other forms of outdoor advertising.

FOSDICK, RAYMOND B. Big billboards in big cities. (American City, December, 1912, p. 511-517.)

Address delivered at the eighth annual convention of the American Civic Association, Baltimore, December 1912. Mr. Fosdick, late commissioner of Accounts for New York City, made an elaborate report to the Mayor on bill boards in New York City, which was noticed in the October, 1912, number of this REVIEW (p. 758).

GREAT BRITAIN. Advertisements regulation act, 1913.

Text of and comment on this Act is printed in the Municipal Journal London, of February 12, 1913 p. 243.

HOARDINGS CONTROL. An overture to the London Chamber of Commerce. (Municipal Journal, London, January 17, 1912, p. 73.)

Comment on a circular, also printed, issued by the London Chamber of Commerce in opposition to the crusade for municipal control of hoardings.

HURT, C. B. High French tax on signboards. (Municipal Engineering, November, 1912, p. 264.)

The matter of a billboard tax is up for consideration by the board of supervisors of San Francisco. The proposed tax is $\frac{1}{2}$ cent annually for each square foot. The tax met with so much opposition that an agreement was postponed for four weeks on January 30, 1913, and, at the time of writing no further advices were available. (See San Francisco Municipal Record, January 30, 1913, p. 5.)

The Montreal city council has passed a bye law regulating illuminated signs. (Municipal Journal, London, January 24, 1913, p. 114.)

Harrisburg, Penn., passed an ordinance regulating billboards which was protested and decided against the city. (Municipality, December, 1912, p. 72.)

Perhaps it is not out of place to refer here to the fact that the regulation of billboards, or outdoor

NOTE.—The editor of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW is happy to be able to announce that he will answer to the extent of his ability any questions requiring documentary research. He is able to make this announcement through the cordial co-operation of Miss Hasse, who has expressed her willingness to make the bibliography department a library service department for the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW. All communications must be addressed to the editor of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, North American Building, Philadelphia.

advertising, was brought before the people of Ohio for vote at the recent constitutional convention of that state. The vote on this, the 38th amendment, was 261,351 for and 262,440 against.

Cabstands

See also under "Finance," New York City.

NEW YORK CITY. Mayor. Message urging the passage of a comprehensive cab ordinance for New York City. February 18, 1913. (City Record, February 20, 1912, p. 1477-1478.)

Child Welfare

HIATT, JAMES S. The child, the school and the job. An address by James S. Hiatt, secretary of the Philadelphia Public Education Association. 1912. 12 p. 8°.

Reprinted from the City Club Bulletin, December 27, 1912. Address 1015 Witherspoon Building, Philadelphia.

NEW YORK CITY. Department of health. The division of child hygiene of the department of health by S. Josephine Baker, M. D., director of child hygiene. September, 1912. 103 p. 8°.

Monograph series, No. 4.

City Planning

GREAT BRITAIN. Local government board. Housing and town planning. Further memorandum relative to the operation of the housing, town planning, etc. act, 1909, and the earlier housing acts as amended by that act. London 1912. 14 p. f°.

Command no. 6494, price 2d. The earlier memorandum was dated November 1911, and was printed as command no. 5933.

NEWARK, N. J. City plan commission. (Report no. 2) Preliminary report to the commission by Messrs. Ford and Goodrich. August, 1912. 24 p. 8°.

The first report is dated July, 1911, and comprises the text of the enabling act, members, officers, rules and outline of work.

PORTLAND, Oregon. Greater Portland. Official organ of the Greater Portland Plans Association. Vol. 1, no. 1. February, 1913. 14 p. f°.

Address 86½ Seventh St., Portland Oreg., 5 cents the copy.

PUFF, CHARLES F. The city plan of Newark, N. J. Report on the comprehensive planning of the metropolitan district of Greater Newark. Submitted to M. R. Sherrerd, chief engineer, department of public works. July, 1912. 52 p. maps, plans. 4°. (Newark, N. J., board of street and water commissioners).

SALEM, MASS. City Plans commission. First annual report, December, 1912. 63 p., 1 map. 8°.

Commission Government

CITY CLUB OF CINCINNATI. Synopsis of discussion on January 18, 1913, on commission rule problems. (The Citizen's Bulletin, January 25, 1913.)

The participants were Henry Bruere of the municipal research bureau of New York City, Mayor Hunt of Cincinnati and Alfred Bettman.

Cost of Living

See also Markets.

CARTER, J. F. Public markets and marketing methods. Suggestions for reducing the high cost of living, based on an inquiry into marketing conditions in 71 cities. (American City, February, 1913, p. 121-138, illus.)

The author is secretary of the San Antonio Chamber of Commerce.

CITY CLUB OF PHILADELPHIA. Bulletin. February, 17, 1913. v. 6, no. 12, p. 259-298.

Comprises discussion on prominent factors in the high cost of living. Among the participants were Prof. Irving Fisher, Mr. E. C. Spring of the Lehigh Valley Transit Company, Miss Mary E. Pennington, director of the food research laboratory, U. S. Bureau of Chemistry, Hon. C. C. Miller, Chairman New York municipal market committee and president of the borough of the Bronx, Mrs. Wm. B. Derr, president of the Housekeepers' League of Pennsylvania, and Prof. C. W. Thompson, director department of agriculture, University of Minnesota.

A very short time ago this subject would have been considered outside the domain of civics. Today it is a conspicuous object of civic interest, chiefly from the point of view of handling food products.

NEW YORK STATE. Food Investigation Commission. Committee on Mar-

kets, Prices and Costs. Report. August 1, 1912. 76 p. 8°.

Address 404 Pearl street, New York City.

Electoral Reform

CHICAGO, Ill. Bureau of public efficiency. Growing cost of elections in Chicago and Cook County. December, 1912. 16 p., 2 leaves. 8°.

In sixteen years the annual expense has more than trebled. Abolition of city and judicial primaries and repeal of statutory provision making all primaries and election days legal holidays recommended. The monograph closes with a calendar of election events in Chicago in each year, 1911-1919, and a tabular presentation of election costs in Chicago each year 1895-1912.

—The voting machine contract. A protest against its recognition in any form by the City Council. January, 1913. 12 p. 8°.

Electoral Reform

OAKLAND, Cal. Tax Association. Bulletin January 1913. No. 1. 8°.

Movement to obtain a new charter for Oakland inaugurated; contains a letter from the county manager of the National Short Ballot Organization, H. S. Gilbertson, defining the "one-man power."

PENNSYLVANIA. Third and final report of the Commission to revise and codify the election laws of Pennsylvania. 1913. 155 p., 1 foldg. table. 8°

— Same. Minority report made by William C. Freeman. 1913. 48 p. 8°.

RUTHERFORD, WALLACE T. The preferential system of voting. (Pacific Municipalities, November, 1912, p. 547-550.)

Mr. Rutherford is city attorney of Napa, Calif.

Excess Condemnation

See also the New York City report on new sources of revenue under "Finance."

LONG, P. V. The doctrine of excess condemnation. (Pacific Municipalities October, 1912. p. 485-489.)

Mr. Long is city attorney for San Francisco.

Finance

IOWA. Department of finance and municipal accounts. Fifth annual report. 1912. 235 p. 8°.

Contains, in an appendix, extracts from the law governing the municipalities of Iowa. These reports also contain a list of the mayors, clerks and treasurers of each city and town in Iowa and the dates when the term of each expires.

NEW YORK CITY. Department of finance. Budget classifications. Explanation indicating the articles which belong to each classification and giving the definition of "supplies," "equipment," and "materials," as used in the budget of 1913. 8 p. 8°.

NEW YORK CITY. Report of the commission on new sources of city revenue. Submitted to the Mayor, January 11, 1913. 116 p. 8°.

The members of the commission were the late Edgar J. Levey, Joseph F. Johnson, Wm. Jay Schieffelin; F. S. Tomlin, Robt. S. Binkerd and Robt. B. McIntyre, secretary. Among the recommendations are the adoption of the excess condemnation constitutional amendment which was defeated when submitted to the people of New York in 1911 by a vote of 254,095 for and 357,881 against out of a total vote of 1,112,546. A tax on advertising billboards is suggested not only as a revenue measure, but also as a regulative measure. The nominal charge now made for vault privileges under city streets is shown to be capable of yielding a very substantial revenue if a proper annual charge were made for the use of the city's subsurface. Increased payments to the city for cab stand privileges, the exaction by the city of its share of profits of subway conduit companies, increase in the fees of county offices, the sale by the city of garbage and waste removal privileges are others of the recommendations made. The most radical of the recommendations, that of the unearned increment tax, has aroused vigorous opposition.

This report is also printed in the City Record of January 24, 1913, p. 624-648. It is reviewed in American City, February, 1913, p. 209, and in the Chicago Real Estate News reprinted in Citizen's Bulletin, February 15, 1913.

UNITED STATES. Census bureau. In instructions to clerks and special agents. Statistics of cities having a population of over 30,000. 1912. Municipal finance 187 p. 12°.

Fire Prevention

CLEVELAND, O. City inspector of buildings. Report of tests of partitions by fire and water made under the direction of Mr. Virgil D. Allen, city inspector of buildings, June 28 and 29, 1912. 78 p., pls. 8°.

The committee in charge of the tests was composed of Prof. John H. Nelson, Case School of Ap-

plied Science, Mr. L. H. Miller, engineer, Bethlehem Steel Company, and Mr. William S. Lougee, architect, Cleveland, O.

NATIONAL BOARD OF FIRE UNDERWRITERS. Suggested ordinance to regulate the manufacture, keeping, storage, sale, use and transportation of explosives (for villages or cities whose population does not exceed 100,000). 18 pp. 8°.

— Suggested ordinance regulating the manufacture, storage, sale and distribution of matches. 4 pp. 8°.

Either of the two foregoing items may be had upon application. Address: 135 Williams street, New York City.

NEW YORK CITY. Fire department. Report on incendiariism in greater New York. 1912. 158 p., illus. 8°.

— Fire department. Rules and regulations of the uniformed force of the fire department of the city of New York. 1912. 144 p. 12°.

Government

ATLANTA, Ga. Chamber of Commerce Report of a study of the Department of Health and the Department of Education. December, 1912. 42 p., 1 diagr. 8°.

Made for the Chamber of Commerce Committee on Municipal Research by S. G. Lindholm for the New York Bureau of Municipal Research.

— Chamber of Commerce. Organization and administration of the city government of Atlanta, Ga. (Exclusive of health and educational department). 64 p. 8°.

Report of a general survey made for the Atlanta Chamber of Commerce Committee on Municipal Research by Herbert R. Sands for the New York Bureau of Municipal Research November, 1912.

BOSTON, Mass. Finance commission. A report on the building department of the city of Boston. 1912. 54 p. 8°.

BRADFORD, England. Municipal progress in Bradford. (U. S. Daily Consular and Trade Reports December 26, 1912, p. 1566.)

At his installation on November 9, 1912, the new lord mayor of Bradford reviewed the progress of the

city during the past 14 years. The facts printed in the report listed above are taken from the lord mayor's speech.

CHICAGO, Ill. Bureau of public efficiency. The office of sheriff of Cook County, Ill. A supplemental inquiry into its organization and methods of administration. November, 1912. 26 p. 8°.

— Administration of the office of clerk of the county court of Cook County Ill. November, 1912. 43 p. 8°.

— The office of clerk of the circuit court and the office of clerk of the superior court of Cook County, Ill. November, 1912. 27 p. 8°.

Address 315 Plymouth Court, Chicago. The purpose of the Chicago bureau of public efficiency is to scrutinize the systems of accounting in the eight local governments of Chicago, to examine the methods of purchasing materials and supplies and letting and executing construction contracts in these bodies, to examine the payrolls of these local governing bodies, to make constructive suggestions and to furnish the public with exact information.

— Civil service commission. Report on appropriations and expenditures bureau of streets, department of public works. 64 p., tables, diagrs. 8°.

Inquiry conducted at request of the committee on finance of the city council and the special commission regarding ward appropriations, July 15, 1912-November 15, 1912. Uniform standards and percentages for ward estimates and appropriations.

CLEVELAND, O. Chamber of Commerce. The Cleveland federation for charity and philanthropy as proposed by the committee on benevolent associations of the Cleveland Chamber of Commerce. January, 1913. 32 p. 8°.

— The coroner's office. Report of the investigation made by the coroner's committee of the Municipal Association in the interest of economy and efficiency. December, 1912. 30 p. 8°.

Efficiency series. Report no. 2.

— The sheriff's office. Report of the investigation made by the Municipal Association in the interest of economy and efficiency. September, 1912. 26 p. 8°.

Efficiency series. Report no. 1.

DALLAS, TEX. Municipal handbook. City of Dallas. 1913. 106 p. obl. 12° illus.

DAYTON, O. The Dayton bureau of municipal research. Efficient city management bulletin no. 1. n.d. 8 p. 8°.

Address 601-603 Schwind Building, Ludlow street, Dayton.

— Bureau of municipal research. Shall we change our city government? A statement of three types of municipal administration. 1913. 16 p. 8°.

EDMONTON, Alberta. Municipal Information bureau. The growth of Edmonton. 8 folios.

Typewritten document. Edmonton besides being the capital of Alberta, is the divisional and distributing point of three large railways, the Canadian Pacific, the Canadian Northern and Grand Trunk Pacific. It has a population of 57,045 (census of 1911) and that it is a progressive community there is no better evidence than in the increased assessment of land values, viz., \$673,694 in 1892, \$1,724,420 in 1902 and \$123,512,580 in 1912. These assessments are on ground values only, there being no improvement, business, income or personal tax in Edmonton.

HODGEHEAD, B. L. A comparison of the methods and efficiency of modern European and American city government. (Pacific Municipalities, October, 1912, p. 489-499.)

HOWE, FREDERICK C. Where the business men rule. (Outlook, January 25, 1913, p. 203-209, illus.)

Business principles in city administration. German cities.

NEW YORK CITY. Law department. A history of the office of the corporation counsel and the law department of the city of New York. Compiled by John H. Greener. October, 1912. 63 p. 4°.

A revision of an earlier publication, also by Mr. Greener, which appeared in pamphlet form in 1907, and which was also embodied in the annual report of the law Department for 1905.

SCHAFER, FRANK H. Eliminate national politics from municipal affairs. (Citizen's Bulletin, January 11, 1913, p. 4-5.)

Address before the Hamilton County Progressive League.

Home Rule

See also under "Taxation"; also under 'Police.'

CIVIC LEAGUE, St. Louis, Mo. Home rule legislation. 14 p. 8°.

Report of a special committee of the League appointed by the executive board to examine the many proposals for so-called home rule for St. Louis. The committee is composed of Clifford B. Allen, J. L. Davis, Edw. C. Eliot, and Tyrrell Williams.

Housing Reform

See also under "City Planning."

BALL, CHARLES B. Health departments and housing. (American Journal of Public Health, January, 1913, p. 1-10.)

Markets

See also "Cost of Living."

BLACK, MRS. ELMER. A terminal market system New York's most urgent need. Some observations, comments and comparisons of European markets. 1912. 32 p. illus. 8°.

Mrs. Black was a member of the advisory board of the New York terminal market commission.

NEWARK, N. J. City plan commission. Newark market problem. Report by Geo. B. Ford and E. P. Goodrich. August, 1912. 8 folios.

Milk Supply

NEW YORK CITY. Department of health. The milk supply of New York City and its control by the department of health by E. J. Lederle, commissioner of health and R. Raynor, chief of division of food inspection. September, 1912. 79 p., illus. 8°.

Motion Picture Theatres

On March 6, 1913, there was introduced in the state legislature of New York a bill requiring moving picture theatres to be licensed in the same way as are the larger playhouses, taking this power away from the board of aldermen of the city of New York. The measure was requested by John D. Lindsay, president of the New York Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children.

The following list of moving picture magazines may be useful to libraries. Of American magazines there are The Motion Picture Story Magazine representing the licensed films. This magazine now in its fifth volume is published monthly at 26 Court Street, Brooklyn, N. Y., at \$1.50 per year. The Mov-

ing Picture World, a quarto weekly, is published at 17 Madison Avenue, New York City at \$3.00 per year. It is now in its fifteenth volume. Motography, is published bi-weekly by the Electricity Magazine Corporation, Monadnock Bldg., Chicago, at \$2.00 per year. It is now in its ninth volume. The Moving Picture News, now in its seventh volume, is published in New York City. Moving Picture Stories represents the independent films. The Edison Kinetogram and the Vitograph Life Portrayals are house organs. In England there is The Byoscope and in Germany there are Der Kinematograph and Das Lichtbild Theatre.

FISHER, BOYD. Regulation of motion picture theaters. (American City, December, 1912, p. 520-522.)

NEW YORK CITY. Committee on laws and legislation. Report on ordinances in relation to motion picture theatres in New York City. December, 1912. (City Record, December 19, 1912. p. 10408-10412.)

Municipal Reference Libraries

UNITED STATES. Committee on the Library (senate). Legislative drafting bureau and legislative reference division of the library of Congress. Hearings. February 4, 1913. 145 p. 8°.

Of course this does not relate to a municipal reference library, but no one interested in municipal reference libraries can fail to be instructed by a reading of these hearings. Almost exactly a year before, on February 26 and 27, 1912, similar hearings were held before the House Committee on the Library. 114 p. 8°.

GREENE, CHARLES S. Municipal reference library movement in the United States and especially in Oakland, Calif. (Pacific Municipalities, October, 1912, p. 461-467.)

Ordinances

See also under "Bibliography," and "Traffic Regulation."

Pacific Municipalities (monthly) prints in each number a list of ordinances received. The Municipality, November-December, 1912, p. 79-80, prints the curfew ordinances of three Wisconsin cities, viz. Chippewa Falls, Superior and Platteville.

Attention is again directed to the weekly Public Health Reports, which contain the text of ordinances relating to public health, vital statistics, sanitation and food and drug regulation.

ST. LOUIS, MO. The revised code of St. Louis, 1912. By Edgar R. Rombauer. St. Louis. 1913. 4 p. l., 1285, xvp. 8°.

The last previous revision of the St. Louis code was that of 1907.

Playgrounds

GREAT BRITAIN. Board of education. Report of the departmental committee appointed to inquire into certain questions in connection with the playgrounds of public elementary schools. London, 1912. 171 p. 8°.

Can be purchased through any bookseller. Price 8½d.

GROSS, T. A. Chicago playgrounds (Municipal Engineering. October, 1912 p. 226-229.)

TELLER, SIDNEY A. Chicago's recreation centers. (Municipal Engineering, November, 1912, p. 297-298.)

Police

CITY CLUB OF PHILADELPHIA. (Bulletin. December 5, 1912, v. 6, no. 4, p. 79-91.)

Confined to consideration of "Forward steps in the policing of Philadelphia," with remarks by Mrs. Wells, woman police officer of Los Angeles, the Rev. Henry Berkowitz, member of the Philadelphia vice commission, and the Hon. Geo. D. Porter, director of the department of public safety, Philadelphia.

NEW YORK CITY. Police Department Investigation Committee. Preliminary legislative report of special committee of the Board of Aldermen of the City of New York. 20 p. 8°.

The report of the Curran Committee. It was made public on March 9, 1913. The preliminary report is made at this time in order that it may be available during the present session of the Legislature. Chief among the recommendations of the committee are home rule in the administration of the Police Department and of excise regulation. The committee expresses opposition to the transfer of vice suppression from the Police Department to a Department of Public Morals, as well as to the establishment of a Board of Social Welfare. The final report of the committee, which will be completed late in April, will contain a summary of the entire investigation of the committee. This has extended over a period of six months.

UNITED STATES. Census Bureau. Police statistics for cities. February 4, 1913. 2 sheets.

Number of employees, officers, sergeants, patrolmen and detectives, amount of appropriations, per capital cost per year, average number of patrolmen

per 10,000 inhabitants, area in acres and number of patrolmen to 1000 acres, for 19 American cities. Statistics are for the last fiscal year only.

Port Development

CALIFORNIA. Commonwealth Club. Transactions, vol. 7, no. 6, December, 1912, p. 515-554.

Largely devoted to addresses and discussions on state vs. local control of harbors.

NEW YORK CITY. Department of docks and ferries. Plans for freight terminal systems at South Brooklyn and west side lower Manhattan with explanatory statement as to each. September, 1912. 11 p., 3 maps. 8°.

Report no. 21 of the numbered series of reports of this department.

— Department of docks and ferries. Plans for freight terminal facilities and equipment thereof, along south Brooklyn water-front. February 10, 1913. (City Record, February, 26, 1913, p. 1618-1619.)

Public Health

See also under Housing Reform.

NEW YORK CITY. Department of health. Monthly bulletin, December, 1912. p. 293-320. 8°.

Almost the entire number is taken up with comment on two recent judicial decisions upholding the police power of the New York City Health board. The decisions are those of Justice Russell rendered in court of special sessions of New York City, November term, 1912, concerning the cleaning of milk receptacles, and of Justice Seabury in the New York supreme court, appellate term October, 1912, concerning slaughter-house odors. The text of each opinion is printed in full.

Public Utilities

REED, R. W. The relation of municipal public utility corporations to the public. (Pacific Municipalities, December, 1912, p. 646-655.)

Mr. Reed is a member of the city council of Los Angeles.

Public Works

BOSTON, Mass. Public works department. Annual report for the year

1911. Boston, 1912. xi, 584 p. folding tables, maps and an organization chart.

This is the first report of this Department which was created by Ordinances of 1910, chap. 9, and is a consolidation of the engineering, water and street departments. The engineering department, which had been in operation since 1867, had made 44 annual reports at the time of the merger, the street department had existed since 1895 and had made 20 annual reports, and the water department had operated since 1895 and had 15 annual reports to its credit. Mr. L. K. Rourke is commissioner of the new board.

Schools

MOORE, ERNEST C. How New York City administers its schools. A constructive study. Yonkers, N. Y. 1913 x, 321 p. 8°.

Professor Moore's report was noted in the preceding list of this department. The report was made to the committee on school inquiry of the board of estimate and apportionment of the city of New York. The committee rejected the report, but published it, omitting the final chapter, in the City Record. The text of the report as described above, is now printed in its entirety.

Sewage Disposal

GREAT BRITAIN. Royal commission on sewage disposal. Eighth report of the commissioners appointed to inquire and report what methods of treating and disposing of sewage (including any liquid from any factory or manufacturing process) may properly be adopted. Standards and tests for sewage and sewage effluents discharging into rivers and streams. Vol. 1. Report. 1912. 17 p. f°.

Command no. 6464, price 3d: The commission, as at present constituted, comprises Lord Idlesleigh, chairman, T. Walter Harding, William Ramsay, W. H. Power, T. J. Stafford, R. A. Tatton, F. J. Willis, and R. H. H. Keenlyside, secretary.

Smoke Abatement

HASKIN, F. J. Smoke abatement—Europe leads the world. (Citizens' Bulletin, January 4, 1913, p. 1-2.)

Social Evil

BONAPARTE, CHARLES J. The social evil. (Citizen's Bulletin, January 25, 1913, p. 1-2.)

CITY CLUB OF CHICAGO. (Bulletin. November 18, 1912, p. 343-349.)

Contains an address by the Hon. Geo. Cosson, state's attorney for Cook County, Ill., on "Newer Methods of Dealing with Commercialized Vice."

PORTLAND, Oreg. Vice commission. Report of the commission to the mayor and city council of Portland, January 1913. 216 p. 8°.

This is the fourth and final report of the commission. The volume includes the 1st-3d reports, which were also published separately.

UNITED STATES. District of Columbia committee (Senate). Abatement of houses of ill fame. Hearings before a subcommittee. December 9 and 19, 1912, and January 7, 1913. 85 p., 1 Rap. 8°.

WILLSON, ROBERT N. The eradication of the social diseases in large cities (Journal of the American Medical Assoc., Sept. 21, 1912. p. 924-928.

Also reprinted in pamphlet form.

Statistics

TOKIO, Japan. Ninth annual statistics of the city of Tokio. Compiled by the statistical department, the Tokio municipal office. 1912. 955 p. 8°.

In English and Japanese.

Street Railways

EDINBURGH, Scotland. Burgh engineer's office. Report on various systems of tramway traction. September, 1912. 10 p. f°.

WISCONSIN. Railroad commission. The City of Milwaukee vs. The Milwaukee Electric Railway and Light Company. Decided August 23, 1912. Opinion and decision. 369 p. 8°.

Streets

KELLOGG, D. D. Physical records of street cleaning service and the value of uniform accounting. (Pacific Municipalities, November 1912, p. 539-542.)

Mr. Kellogg is auditor and assessor of Pasadena.

SIMMONS, FRED G. Paving experience of Milwaukee, (Municipality, November-December, 1912, p. 59-70.)

Address delivered before the fourteenth annual convention of the League of Wisconsin Municipalities, July, 1912. Mr. Simmons is commissioner of public works of Milwaukee.

TILLSON, GEORGE W. Street pavements—Selection, care and maintenance. (American City, December, 1912, p. 545-551.)

From a paper presented at the American Road Congress, Atlantic City, October, 1912.

Taxation

HEYDECKER, E. L. Municipal finances and taxation. (Pacific Municipalities, October, 1912. p. 508-515.)

Mr. Heydecker is assistant tax commissioner for New York City and secretary of the New York State Conference on Taxation.

KIERSTADT, W. C. Reform in local taxation by the taxation of the land. (Canadian Municipal Journal. December, 1912. p. 489-492.)

Address before the seventh annual convention of New Brunswick Municipalities. Professor Kierstadt is of the faculty of the University of New Brunswick.

PRESTON, England. Borough treasurer's office. Rates levied in various towns 1912-13. (28th annual statement.) 13 p. 4°.

Rates of 86 towns in England and Wales, together with charges for gas, water and electricity; also profits and losses on municipal undertakings by which rates in those towns have been reduced or increased.

WILSON, J. S. Home rule in taxation. (Pacific Municipalities. January, 1913. p. 20-35, 1 d. February, p. 63-67.)

Address before the fifteenth annual convention of the League of California Municipalities. Mr. Wilson is mayor of Berkeley, Calif.

Traffic Regulation

A synopsis of the recent Cincinnati vehicle ordinance, including automobiles, is printed in Municipal Engineering, December, 1912, p. 388-389.

HUDSON, N. Y. An ordinance to regulate traffic on the public streets. 1912. 11 p. 12°.

LEWIS, WILLIAM Y. Tram, bus,—or “continuous transit.” (*Municipal Journal*, London, February 7, 1913, p. 175-177.)

The London traffic problem having become a political question, the literature on the subject has grown. The above paper while not long, gives a good résumé of the situation.

TRAFFIC on streets and roads. Proposed standard method for recording

and comparisons. (*American City*, December, 1912, p. 553-559.)

Water Supply

COUNCIL BLUFFS, Ia. Board of water works trustees. First annual report for 1912. 38 p., 21 plates. 8°.

Report for the first year of municipal ownership. It summarizes the municipalization of the plant and the organization of the new board.

BOOK REVIEWS

THE GOVERNMENT OF AMERICAN CITIES. By William Bennett Munro, Ph.D., LL.B. New York: The Macmillan Company.

AMERICAN CITY GOVERNMENT. By Charles A. Beard. New York: The Century Company.

These two volumes form important additions to the already extensive literature on municipal affairs in this country. And the scope and variety of the subject is well illustrated by noting that these books not only supply such information not hitherto available, but also, while bearing similar titles, offer marked contrasts to each other in the topics discussed, in their method of treatment and in their literary style.

Professor Munro uses the term government in contrast to administration, and states that his aim is to describe the machinery or framework of municipal organization. In fact he does more than analyze the anatomical structure; and discusses also what President Lowell calls the physiology—and also the pathology—of the principal organs of municipal government. After introductory chapters on municipal development and the social structure of the city, he treats of the legal position and powers of cities, municipal politics, the council, the mayor, the principles of administrative organization, commission government, direct legislation and municipal reform. These topics are discussed with more thoroughness than in any other work covering the whole of this field; and the

presentation throughout bears the stamp of the scientific observer.

While the work thus deals with both the constitution and procedure of the political organism, it does so as a biologist would analyze the structure and conduct of plants and animals, without considering the external results of these activities in relation to economic and social problems. This limitation is however recognized by the author; and another volume on administration is promised to present this phase of the subject.

Professor Beard's book from one point of view has a broader scope, but in other respects is more limited. The distinctively political phases are treated briefly in four chapters; and the greater part of the volume discusses the economic and social problems of the modern city, with chapters on such topics as finances, police control, public utilities, public health, education and city planning. Moreover as indicated in the subtitle, “a survey of newer tendencies,” only the most recent developments in connection with the various topics are discussed. The purpose of the author seems to be to present selective illustrations for the general reader, rather than to give a comprehensive analysis for the more serious student.

The contrast in literary style is not between good and bad—for both authors display distinct literary ability which other writers may envy. It is rather between distinctive styles, each adapted to the author's general method of treatment. Professor Munro's scientific dis-

cussion is not cumbered with statistics or technical terms; but is presented with the clear and dignified diction of the modern Harvard school of English. Professor Beard's language has a lighter touch, that befits an instructor in the new Pullitzer school of journalism.

From the point of view of the university teacher of municipal government, these books will take a leading place among the works used in connection with courses in this subject; and the differences in content and method make them complementary rather than competing volumes. But neither in itself will be adequate as a suitable text book for a comprehensive and systematic university course.

JOHN A. FAIRLIE.

University of Illinois.



THE NEW IMMIGRATION. By Peter Roberts. New York: The Macmillan Company, pp. 386, \$1.60.

The present unsettled condition of southeastern Europe gives an added interest to this book. Since the early eighties immigration into the United States has shifted from northwestern to southeastern Europe introducing into this country masses of new people far removed from American standards and creating a serious task in the work of assimilation. The author is sympathetic in his study of the quality, industrial efficiency, social life and the relation of the new people to the native born population, and his book shows an optimistic vein of belief that the new immigrants need chiefly systematic direction and sympathetic treatment to make them a highly useful asset to the country.

If a line is drawn from the northwestern corner of Minnesota to the southwestern corner of Illinois and then eastward to the Atlantic, passing between the cities of Washington and Baltimore, we cut off less than one-fifth of the area of the United States but in it is found more than 80 per cent of the new immi-

gration. Thirty-two of the fifty cities of 100,000 or more population in the United States are found in this territory and the new aliens are found in every city of the angle. These cities are the hives whence industrial and manufactured products are sent in a continuous stream to enrich this and other nations, and the one great factor that has made possible the industrial development of this part of the United States is the inflow of 80 per cent of the new immigration coming to America. The brawn and sinew of the peoples of the Danube, the Carpathian mountains, southern Russia, the Balkan states and the Italian peninsula have been freely drawn upon to man mine, mill, shop, factory and railroad, and never did any civilized nation get an army of more docile, industrious and efficient workers. As the men of the new immigration reside in industrial centers, they can easily be reached, for the remedies for the evils incident to their coming are more available in populous centers than elsewhere. In the cities are to be found the best brains, the highest executive ability and the greatest concentration of the wealth of the nation. These are the tools with which to wage war upon the superstitions and ignorance of the immigrants, the uncleanness, the unsanitary, overcrowded dwellings of the aliens, the helplessness and inefficiency of the foreigners' homes. "Another twenty-five years of conditions too common in congested quarters of the large industrial cities," the author says, "will bring a slum situation that will be a check to progress and a menace to our industrial peace. The best prevention is to cure the present condition of the representatives of the backward races now in the tenements of our cities."

The chapters of the book dealing with the part they play in the industries of the United States, the way they live in the American cities and the manner in which they are treated by the native born are especially interesting.

MURRAY GROSS.

Drexel Institute, Philadelphia.

GUIDA DEGLI STATI UNITI PER L'IMMIGRANTE ITALIANO. Pubblicata a cura della Società delle Figlie della Rivoluzione Americana, Sezione di Connecticut. By John Foster Carr. New York: Doubleday, Page and Company, 1910, pp. 85, paper, 15 cents. Also Polish version, 1912, and Yiddish version, 1912.

Under the auspices of the Connecticut Daughters of the American Revolution, Mr. Carr has prepared a guide to the United States for the use of immigrants of various nationalities. The versions in Italian, Polish and Yiddish have been received for review. In special ways each of these versions has been adapted to meet peculiar needs of the nationality directly concerned, but the Italian version will illustrate the general contents and character of the guide.

The little volume is filled with just the information the immigrant needs, stated concisely but with sufficient detail. Among the many matters discussed and explained are the immigration law and the system of inspection, the various immigrant aid societies, public and private employment offices, methods of travel in the United States, the school system and other educational and cultural opportunities, ways of buying or renting land on advantageous terms, location and characteristics of Italian agricultural colonies, physical geography and government of the United States, advantages of citizenship and method of naturalization, the laws of the country most likely to concern an immigrant, precautions to preserve health and facilities for the treatment of injuries and diseases, savings institutions and methods of transferring money, the postal and telegraph system and rates, and Italian diplomatic and consular representation in the United States. There are appended useful tables of money, weights, and measures, and also a map of the United States. The guide is well illustrated, containing as its frontispiece a picture of the President of the United

States, and including also several illustrations of occupational training work in the New York schools.

The work deserves especial commendation for the wholesome advice it gives the immigrant. He is urged to learn the English language, and helpful suggestions are made as to the ways and means. To speak English, he is informed, is to make progress toward the better paid occupations. He is also advised to see to it that his children go to the public schools regularly, and the opportunities for them in manual training and trade schools are explained to him.

Stress is placed upon the great desirability of country life. Wealth and health, says the guide, are to be found in the country. The newcomer should establish himself there with his family and buy land. How this may best be done is told in detail, especial attention being called to the chances afforded by abandoned farms in New York and New England. Several pages are devoted to a description of Italian agricultural colonies in various parts of the United States.

The immigrant is encouraged to become a citizen, and the steps in the naturalization process are explained. From the handbook he can obtain such essential information about the relative position and powers of federal and state governments, and about the various governmental organs, as will qualify him for admission to citizenship.

About fifteen pages of the guide are devoted to the laws of the United States. The sketch of the laws of the land, as affecting an immigrant, is simple but remarkably comprehensive. Strong emphasis is placed upon the matter of obedience to law. Special attention is directed to such laws as those forbidding lotteries, compelling school attendance, restricting child labor, and prohibiting the carrying of concealed weapons and the sending of threatening letters.

The community at large will profit by the observance of the directions regarding health and hygiene here given to the

immigrant. One who is familiar with the ordinary habits of Italian laborers will find a flavor of humor in this serious advice. The immigrant is told to keep his person clean, to eat well, to drink pure water, to avoid bad habits, to bathe, and to guard against flies; he is informed that, "In America it never does any harm to sleep with the windows open."

Taken as a whole, the guide is truly the immigrant's *vade mecum*. Such a book ought to have been written long ago. It anticipates the problems and difficulties the newcomer is sure to meet, and gives him counsel which, if followed, will save him from many blunders and will greatly increase his value to his adopted country. May the volume have the widest possible circulation! No work could be more appropriate for Daughters of the American Revolution than the patriotic service involved in giving support to a publication of this nature.

WILLIAM H. GLASSON.

Trinity College, North Carolina.



CIVICS FOR AMERICANS IN THE MAKING.

By Anna A. Plass, New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1912, pp. viii. 187.

When this unique little book was turned over to me for review I soon discovered that no opinion concerning it would be of value that was not the outcome of its actual use with those for whom it was intended. Accordingly, the book was at once turned over to Mr. J. J. Maioriello, a recent graduate of the Philadelphia School of Pedagogy, who for over two years has been conducting with splendid success a class in citizenship with Italian immigrants at the Social Service Settlement House, Philadelphia.

After several weeks of constant use of the text Mr. Maioriello writes the following appreciative letter, which amply confirms the favorable opinion one gets from a mere reading of the book.

The twofold aim, as shown in Plass's *Civics*, is (1) to help teach the foreigner the

language so that he may earn his living more easily; (2) to make him a more desirable citizen, by making him acquainted with the manners, customs and laws of this country. The material is adapted to the varied intellectual development and educational progress of the pupils. The form in which the lessons are written makes them adaptable to a class where the pupils are of unequal ability, with the result that everybody takes part in the work.

The pupils gain confidence. The lessons are so constructed that by their very nature they promote conversation. They are all arranged in short concise sentences, the authors seeming well aware of the fact that to foreigners the reading of long sentences is very difficult.

One advantage is the introduction of a practical vocabulary, containing English equivalents in Italian, German, Swedish, French, Polish, Greek and Yiddish. It presents carefully selected words, such as are in every day use, and which familiarize the pupils with their environment. But very often the one meaning of a word is not sufficient properly to convey the ideas contained in different sentences. However, this helps to encourage the individuality of the teacher.

The "true to life" pictures are of inestimable value in helping the pupils to grasp ideas. Their use forms a very important part in the teaching of foreigners. The illustrations are in keeping with the subject matter.

The lessons are regularly graded, with progressive steps—dealing with the simple story of community life, and then leading to the larger field of state and nation."

Besides enabling the foreigner to understand the English language the book helps him to become acquainted with his American environment. He recognizes himself as a part of the community—of the country's rule—he helps to elect officers—to make, explain, and execute the laws, etc. Thus the study of *Civics* commands the interest of all, with an appeal of "patriotism."

J. LYNN BARNARD.

Philadelphia.



CHILD LABOR IN CITY STREETS. By Edward N. Clopper, Ph.D. New York: 1912, The MacMillan Company, \$1.25.

This book shows the extent of street trading in America and Europe, its

effects, its regulation in Europe and the struggle for regulation here. It is a convincing and concise account based on four years of field work by Dr. Clopper, the secretary of the National Child Labor Committee for the Mississippi Valley States.

The problem of the street working children and its relation to other problems, the extent to which children engage in street activities in America and Europe, newspaper sellers, bootblacks, peddlers and market children, messengers, errand and delivery children, effects of street work, the relation of street work to delinquency, and trades regulation—these are the main subjects of the volume. To this is added a good bibliography, appendices containing, among other things, the law of Wisconsin relative to street trading and the by-laws adopted by the London county council, and an index. Numerous tables throughout the volume enforce the discussion and add to its usefulness as a general work.

The "street trades" of newspaper selling, peddling and bootblacks are as yet almost untouched by legislation in the United States for there are only a few state laws and municipal ordinances relative to this matter; and those states that have prohibited the employment of children under fourteen years of age "in any gainful occupation" have been hampered by the courts which have often construed the word "employ" to mean the purchasing of the services of one person by another. Children who work on the streets on their own account do not, therefore, enjoy the protection of such statutes. In other words a legal distinction has been made between children working for *wages* and those working for *profits*. This distinction the author considers ill-advised. His investigations lead him to the conclusion that children working for profits are in even greater need of regulation than those under the control of an employer. In both cases the effects have been morally and materially deteriorating. This is

shown by reports and compilations from various cities. For example a report on the house of refuge of New York City shows that 63 per cent of its inmates had been street traders of whom 32 per cent were newsboys. Another report, compiled from different cities, shows that a majority of street traders are backward in school. Truancies, delinquencies, bad habits, petty crimes and often gross immoralities are directly traceable to street work. It should, therefore, be subject to stringent laws and undertaken jointly with the movement to supply playground facilities.

The book is an earnest appeal for reform and in it Dr. Clopper proposes a constructive remedy which not only strikes at the exploitation of children, but makes a real contribution to the problem of adults who are physically unfit to earn their living in other ways. The work is of practical service to all who are working for child welfare, particularly in the forty states whose legislatures are now in session. Incidentally it also again reminds us of how far we are behind Europe in laws providing for the conservation of human resources.

KARL F. GEISER.

Oberlin College.



MODERN PHILANTHROPY. A Study of Efficient Appealing and Giving. By William H. Allen. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company, 1912.

The phrase in the sub-title, "efficient appealing and giving," would make a clearer name for this work than the one it bears. It is based on a study of 6000 letters of appeal to Mrs. E. H. Harriman, made in 1910 and 1911 by the bureau of municipal research, of which Dr. Allen is director. Dr. Allen considers such letters "much too valuable for the wastebasket," and follows out his own suggestion (p. 282) of a bureau which shall "read letters of appeal, not reluctantly but with avidity" to see what lesson or

opportunity they may have. The lesson of the letters is not, however, made very clear in this book. They are often catalogued with a detail that is tiresome though relieved by the author's scent for what is comical. The book is exasperating in this detail, but it is also full of valuable and sometimes compact suggestions on the neglected subject of appealing and giving.

The chief suggestion of the book is for a national "coöperative clearing house for givers and appealers," which would serve both classes, for a fee, as a consulting adviser, or as a Dun's or Bradstreet's agency; or, we might add, as a Baedeker, totell appealers and givers where they should go, and how to get there. Efficiency is certainly needed in these directions, and will be promoted by a study of this book, but at times the reader feels like the Harvard professors who resented successfully a recent effort to introduce efficiency schedules into their work. Dr. Allen speaks often of the need of a complete list, or in his favorite phrase, a 100 per cent list, "of the things remaining to be done," in Chicago or elsewhere, though only omniscience could furnish such a list. He does well to urge the importance of scrupulous honesty in appeals, without exaggeration; and he expresses vigorously his preference for prevention rather than cure in the sentence: "Failure to enforce health laws is a more serious menace to health and morals than drunkenness and tobacco cancer" (p. 384). A sentence on the page following this will strike most readers as extreme: "The schools are probably injuring the physical, mental and moral health of more children every year than private philanthropies are relieving in a generation."

Mrs. Harriman's short preface is excellent and inspiring. She wishes that charity and philanthropy might be made to mean "loving one's neighbor as one's self, and doing one's utmost to insure equal opportunity for all to become efficient," and speaks with approval of the

reaction from intense individualism to efficient government for the benefit of all.

FREDERIC ALMY.

Buffalo.

✱

MUNICIPAL WORK FROM A CHRISTIAN STANDPOINT. By A. W. Jephson, A. M. London: A. R. Mowbray and Company Ltd., 18d. net; cloth, 2s. net.

Such a title as the above will no doubt seem to many as absurd as a discussion of Christian chemistry. But, as one of the "Christian Social Union Handbooks," the study is simply designed to set forth the duty of Christian men to be zealous and useful as members of the community. Not more than a dozen pages are devoted to the grounds upon which the appeal is made. The volume as a whole is an intelligent and restrained statement of municipal opportunity, and of the need of the citizen's watchfulness and support of local boards. The latter is reminded that these boards are representative, and "the breath of their nostrils is public opinion," and that he is responsible for the formation of an opinion that will embody the social conscience. It is significant that such matters should be recognized as religious concerns. It is the outcome of the modern conception of Christian service as finding its characteristic expression in social service.

This, however, indicates merely the atmosphere of the study. The general thesis is that the well-being of the community is tested by the smallness of the number of those who suffer at the bottom of the social scale. Under the three divisions of public health, public works, and public services, is given a highly encouraging record of recent English municipal progress. The idea of the duties of the local authority has greatly developed, as is shown by the number of services in which it now accepts responsibility, which were formerly disregarded or left to individual initiative. A classified list of the powers and duties

of the London County Council covers 151 details, and is suggestive of what a municipality can do and may be called on to do. Among the many matters in which the community is understood to owe some duty to the citizen may be selected sanitation, women inspectors, adulteration and public analysts, infant life, town planning, fair wages and hours, unemployment, and small holdings. In each of these, ways are suggested in which the vigilance of the citizen may keep the authorities up to their work. Although naturally confined to English conditions, we find something familiar in the references to the occasional absence of civic pride, and also to the common attitude towards an increase of local taxation whose social benefits are so immediate and tangible. The chief value of the book is its history of the enlargement of the spheres within which the municipality is now expected to be active; for this is the *differentia* of the present-day idea of municipal function and obligation.

GEORGE C. FOLEY.

Philadelphia, Pa.



A TEXTBOOK ON ROADS AND PAVEMENTS.

By Frederick P. Spalding, Professor of Civil Engineering, University of Missouri. Fourth edition, revised and enlarged. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1912, pp. xi + 408, illustrated, \$2.00.

In his preface to the original edition of this book (issued in 1894), the author stated its purpose by remarking that "successful practice in the construction of highways must depend upon correct reasoning of elementary principles in each instance, rather than upon following definite rules or methods of construction." He said that the aim of his book would be, then, to provide a brief discussion of the engineering principles involved in highway work, "and to outline the more important systems of construction."

Whatever the permanency of engineering principles, systems of construction change, and it is because of that fact that new editions of this book have had to be considerably re-written to keep them up to date. During the last few years especially, advances have been rapid in the methods of constructing and maintaining highways. Changes in the character of traffic due to the introduction of automobiles have created new problems, while, as the author remarks, "modifications in the standards of life both in city and country render the old methods no longer satisfactory to the public." In the present edition, for example, entirely new chapters have been added on bituminous, macadam and concrete pavements, while the chapters on brick, asphalt and wood pavements have been considerably modified. These additions and changes have increased the size of the volume, but with its thin paper and small pages it is still a handy and convenient little book. Of its value, it is hardly necessary for a reviewer to speak. The successive editions and the continued demand for it nearly twenty years after its first printing are sufficient evidence of that.

The principal defect in the volume is its lack of an index. In a book of this kind, for which the largest use—outside of the class room—must be for quick reference, an index is of such importance that it is a pity it was not included in the new edition. The chapter subheads in the table of contents cover many points, but are by no means complete. Thus in chapter iv, on "Improvement and Maintenance of Country Roads," so important a discussion as that on the crown—a discussion containing specific and valuable comment—is not separately listed. This is true, also, of gutters, earth settlement, varieties of scrapers, etc., all of which are included under the one sub-head "Grade and Cross Section." One would like, moreover, to be able to refer to illustrations, to the concrete examples cited, or to authorities quoted, but there is no index of illus-

trations and no listing of examples or authorities in the chapter sub-heads.

There can also be criticism of the author's final chapter, which is devoted to city streets. His statements as to desirable width for both the streets and pavements of cities, is rather sweeping, a little Western perhaps in its viewpoint, and not quite in line with the best modern judgment. But this criticism applies only to a paragraph or so, in a chapter which is somewhat apart from the main thesis of the volume. The book as a whole is rich in practical advice, briefly and accurately given.

CHARLES MULFORD ROBINSON.

Rochester, N. Y.



TREES IN WINTER: THEIR STUDY, PLANTING, CARE AND IDENTIFICATION. By Albert Francis Blakeslee, Ph.D., Professor of Botany and Director of Summer School, Connecticut Agricultural College, and Chester Deacon Jarvis, Ph.D., Horticulturist Storrs Experiment Station. New York: The Macmillan Company, \$2.00.

The title of this book is explained by its authors in the introduction to be much more comprehensive than its phraseology indicates. It does, to be sure, discuss trees in winter, but from the standpoint of considering trees in their dormant condition, and in all the relations they sustain in that condition.

There is presented a comprehensive analytical key, a description of species, with excellent illustrations, and trees and shrubs broadly are treated in its pages.

The chapters on the structure, propagation, selection, planting, care, injuries, parasites and diseases of trees are excellent, but to readers of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW the principal interest will be in the chapters on "Tree Planting in Rural Districts" and on "Tree Planting in Towns and Cities." These are comprehensive and modern, and include not only suggestions and directions, but desirably strong argu-

ments for better treatment of trees and for municipal control of them in cities. Lists of trees for special purposes and places are included, as, for instance, those resistant to smoke, those best for avenues, for seaside planting, for dry situations, for wet soils, etc. The work is thus well adapted to promote the proper estimation and the proper handling of the trees, which, even under our present hit-or-miss methods, are absolutely essential to comfort in civilization.

Mechanically the book is not up to the average of the publications of the Macmillans. It is unnecessarily heavy and bulky, and the printing of the illustrations does not parallel the excellence of the text.

The book should be in every municipal library, and would be of service not only to those charged with the handling of trees in cities, but to those interested in them.

J. H. HORACE MCFARLAND.

Harrisburg, Pa.



FIRE PREVENTION. By Edward F. Croker. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company, \$1.50.

Any contribution to the discussion of a subject so vitally affecting every human interest as fire prevention, even though it does nothing more than present well known facts and principles from another standpoint, should be welcomed.

In *Fire Prevention*, by Edward F. Croker, the former chief of the New York Fire Department, the principal prevalent safeguards against loss of property and life by fire, are discussed in a readable manner, based on his long experience as a fire fighter. While the purpose of the book includes the description of what the author considers the most effective means of extinguishment, the more important message he would convey is the necessity of preventing the outbreak of fires.

We may not be prepared to accept the author's conclusions as to the necessity

of additional laws, the means to be adopted in enforcing such laws or the efficacy and adequacy of the proposed improvements of present safeguards, but we cannot too strongly commend for a careful perusal the chapters dealing with the all-important topic known to insurance men as housekeeping. On account of its simplicity and ease of observance, it is a matter too readily overlooked. If every one in any way interested in the safe management of a household, workshop or business establishment (and who is not so interested?) could not only read but thoroughly absorb and practice the simple suggestions made in the first chapter, a long step will have been taken toward a reduction of the fire hazard.

It is probably not realized that the fire loss of this country, if saved for two years, would more than pay the entire cost of the Panama Canal. Nor is it generally appreciated that most of this enormous loss originates from trivial causes. In most instances, these causes are preventable; the author even goes so far as to say that every fire is preventable. And, generally speaking, fire prevention is secured by proper housekeeping. In stating in a pamphlet published in 1900 that "the only persons who can prevent loss by fire are the owners or occupants of the premises" Mr. Edward Atkinson, one of the greatest exponents of fire prevention, has long since placed the responsibility where it properly belongs.

RUDOLPH P. MILLER.

New York.



THE LAW OF LIGHT. By R. G. Nicholson Combe. Philadelphia: Cromarty Law Book Company, \$7.50.

Combe's *Law of Light* is a book on the easement of light, giving its history and its present-day form and content in England, which cannot fail to be of interest to every lawyer, who desires to grasp

the underlying principles and historical accidents which have made existing positive law what it is, as well as to every citizen, who hopes to take an intelligent interest or exercise a reasoned influence on the branch of municipal reform with which it deals. The law of ancient lights has never existed in America, a fact which gives a freer rein in the matters of urban aëration including the apportionment of air and light, which is so cognate a subject. But, while this freedom is to be taken advantage of, it should not lead us into the mistake of making hasty legislation without close study of the experience of a nation, which has struggled with the question for four centuries. Perhaps, the English conclusion, reached in *Colls vs. Home and Colonial Stores* (1904 A. C. 179), where the right to light was placed upon the right of the owner of a building to non-interference with the light coming over a servient tenement and needed for the use of his building, acquired by grant or prescription, in other words, making the question one of nuisance, is not as broad a rule as should be the goal of a legislature unhampered by precedents in a country, where landmarks are constantly changing, and where building operations present physical aspects very different from those in England, but the difficulties met in the English cases should be known by all who are interested in the subject in order that they may be avoided at the start. Some of these difficulties, under the guise of erroneous interpretations of common law were over-ruled by the decision of the court of appeals. Many of them are upheld by the well-meaning, but too enthusiastic and unversed propounders of law providing for the aëration and lighting (by the sun) of the tenements of American cities. These theories, which have been proved impracticable (technically not held to be law) include the belief that the *quantum* of light depends upon the amount used or needed. That is, that a jeweler can demand better light than an innkeeper. It has been held that

an owner of a lot in a city is entitled *qua* his building to reasonable light. This decision has not been avoided by forced constructions of the adjective, but has consistently been enforced as providing against an increase or diminution of light, because of the occupation of the owner of the dominant tenement. Another such belief leading into difficulties, bases the right upon the windows or apertures. This, of course is wrong in principle, as a right exists *qua* a building, and is a right of the owner to have access to a reasonable amount of light, not a right to have a definite column of air.

The object of Combe's work, however, was not future legislation for municipal improvement, but past legislation in England. His work is of interest to the American municipal reformer only indirectly, as a thorough treatise on the law of ancient lights in England, the litigations under which throw light on the difficulties of legal control of urban aëration. But his treatise cannot be commended too highly as a law-book. It reviews all the cases; is written in polished and clear English. Its construction is logical and helpful. Dealing first with easements in general (cap. i), he then takes up the content of the easement of light (cap. ii). His next chapters are concerned with the creation of the right, by grant, implication of law, and prescription. Before considering the last origin of the right, which he divides into two chapters, one before the prescription act (cap. vi) and one after (cap. vii) he treats prescription generally (cap. v), as he treated easements generally before he considered the easement of light particularly. The extinguishment and variation of light easements are given one chapter (cap. viii) and the last (cap. ix) is devoted to remedies.

JOHN LISLE.¹

¹ Of the Philadelphia bar.

SOME CHEMICAL PROBLEMS OF TODAY.
By Robert Kennedy Duncan. New York: Harper and Brothers, \$2.

It would hardly be too much to say that the number of chemists capable of writing attractive and comprehensible magazine articles on their science may be counted on the fingers of one hand without going beyond the thumb. In other words Mr. Duncan comes near to having a monopoly of the field he has made his own, the popular interpretation of recent scientific discoveries. Notwithstanding the fact that more chemistry is being taught than ever before, it still remains even for the majority of those who have studied it a dark and esoteric science, remote from the affairs of everyday life. "Philosophy does not bake bread" and most people think the same of chemistry. Not so Professor Duncan, for one of his "industrial fellows in the University of Kansas earned his Ph.D. by discovering a commercial process for making "salt-rising" bread, one of the cherished secrets of the western housewife. Professor Duncan is a second Rumford in his zeal to draft chemistry into the service of men and in particular to utilize the unconsidered trifles which now go into the scrap heap and the garbage can of the cities and the county. His saving soul has been worried by the thousands of carloads of oranges and lemons left to rot under the trees or thrown into the sea because they were over-ripe or under-ripe or slightly bruised. This wasted fruit, he knew, contained essential oils and citric acid which could be used to flavor food or drink if they could be extracted and purified. So he set his young men in the University of Pittsburgh at work on the problem and we learn from his own lips since this volume appeared that the problem has been solved and the wealth of the country enriched; doubly enriched, if the old proverb holds that "a penny saved is tuppence earned."

The system of industrial fellowships invented by Professor Duncan is ex-

plained in this volume, not from the standpoint of what it might accomplish, but of what it has accomplished in four years' experience in the way of bringing the problems of the manufactory into the laboratory and in bringing the knowledge of the university to the aid of industry. Beginning with a timid appropriation of \$500 a year from a laundry firm for researches in the chemistry of that business he now has offers of \$5000 a year for capable young men to devote their time and to utilize the facilities of the university for the improvement of manufacturing processes. Besides the bread and oranges already mentioned Professor Duncan's fellows at Kansas and Pittsburgh have conducted investigations at the expense of the corporations concerned in such subjects as the diastase of alfalfa, buttermilk, petroleum, glass, cement, the ductless glands of whales, wood, borax, vegetable ivory, soap, oysters, smoke, gilsonite, glue, composition flooring and natural gas. The young chemist is provided with the crude materials and all necessary information as to the trade processes by the manufacturer and ordinarily if he "makes good" enters into the employ of the company, receiving a bonus on the increased value of the output due to his discoveries. These are recorded in a monograph deposited in the university which after three years has the right to publish them for the benefit of the world at large.

The advantages of some such plan of coöperation as this to a state or municipal university is obvious. How much a university can do for the people is shown in the chapter on the work of the University of Wisconsin in popularizing education and aiding the state government. In the first chapter, "The Prizes of Chemistry," which is as it ought to be the most attractive of the book, Professor Duncan presents a list of needed inventions enticing enough to lure anybody into the laboratory in the hope of capturing one of these "prizes" that

seem, as he tells it, almost within reach.

EDWIN E. SLOSSON.

New York City.

✱

AMERICAN WATER WORKS ASSOCIATION.
Proceedings for 1912. Troy, N. Y.:
J. M. Diven, Secretary.

The papers and discussions at the annual meeting of the Association make up a large cloth-bound volume. Among the topics treated are pumping plants, reservoir construction, water disinfection by use of hypochlorites and also water softening, sewage disposal and water pollution, water-works organization and the purchase of water-works supplies for New York City, and the general subject of efficiency. The appeal of the contents of the volume is chiefly to water-works officials and engineers, but some of the papers are of more general interest.

✱

THE CALL OF THE NEW SOUTH. Edited
by James E. McCulloch. Nashville:
Southern Sociological Congress, 1912,
pp. 387.

This volume contains the addresses delivered at the First Southern Sociological Congress. There are ten subdivisions, eight of them dealing with substantive questions: child welfare, courts and prisons, public health, negro problems, enemies of the home, education and coöperation, the church and social service, the call and qualifications of social workers. The sundry papers contained in the volume are important in themselves, but their special significance lies in their application to the southern problem and to the disclosure of a growing public interest in social and political obligations in that section.

The Congress, of which Mr. McCulloch the editor of this volume is secretary, has already 1006 members and is preparing for another convention in Atlanta in the month of May.

SWEDISH BOOKS

STOCKHOLM. QUELQUES DONNÉES STATISTIQUES. Pub. par le Service Municipal de Statistique de Stockholm. Édition 1912. Norstedt & Söner.

This little volume of sixty pages contains very brief sections on the government of the city of Stockholm, elections, finances, imports, hygiene, industries, mortality and kindred subjects. The book is beautifully illustrated and has two large maps.

KOMMUNAL FÖRFATTNINGSHANDBOK FÖR STOCKHOLM 1910. Utarbetad af Stockholms statistiska kontor. Stockholm, 1911. Handbook (or Manual) of Municipal Statutes for Stockholm, 1910, pp. 889.

The book, containing "the most important and for daily use most necessary statutes which are still in force for the capital," is divided into eleven sections or parts (each part being fully indexed). Among the subjects treated are the following: "General Statutes (ordinances) Concerning the City Gov-

ernment" (I); "Finance and Economic Activity" (II); "Commerce and Intercommunication" (IV); "Sanitary Conditions" (V); "Poor Relief" (VI), etc.

The book is well edited and is a valuable source for students of city governments.

BERÄTTELSE ANGÅENDE STOCKHOLMS KOMMUNALFÖRVALTNING ÅR 1910 (Relation Concerning the Municipal Administration of Stockholm for the Year 1910). Number II in the series of *Stockholm Stads Statistik* (The Statistics of the City of Stockholm).

In the same series occurs a statistical inquiry into the cost of living in Stockholm for the years 1907-1908, which is also another valuable volume. It is based on a large variety of sources and contains statistics which, in some cases, cover a period of fifty years and more (as for instance statistics on births from 1751 to 1910, on the Gothenburgsystem, 1877 to 1910, etc.), but most of the tables are for recent years.

AMANDUS JOHNSON.

University of Pennsylvania.

BOOKS RECEIVED

BRITISH SOCIAL POLITICS. By Carlton Hayes. Boston: Ginn and Company. 580 pp. \$1.75.

THE COTTON MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY OF THE UNITED STATES. By Melvin Thomas Copeland, Ph.D. Harvard Economic Series. Published under the direction of the Department of Economics, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass. 415 pp. \$2.00.

ECONOMIC SURVEY OF PITTSBURGH. By J. T. Holdsworth, Ph.D. 1912.

THE FOUNDATIONS OF FREEDOM, THE LAND AND THE PEOPLE. A series of essays on the taxation of land values. Middleton, England: John Bagot, Ltd. 158 pp. Fourpence.

IMMIGRATION AND LABOR: THE ECONOMIC ASPECTS OF EUROPEAN IMMIGRATION TO THE UNITED STATES. By Isaac A. Hourwich, Ph.D. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$2.50.

MESSAGES OF THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES TRANSMITTING THE REPORTS OF THE COMMISSION ON ECONOMY AND EFFICIENCY. Communicated to the two houses of Congress, January 8, 1913. Washington: Government Printing Office. 1913.

THE GENERAL FEDERATION OF WOMEN'S CLUBS. ELEVENTH BIENNIAL CONVENTION: 1912. Official report compiled and edited by the retiring recording secretary, Mrs. George O. Welch. Published by the Federation. 1912.

HOUSING PROBLEMS IN AMERICA. Proceedings of the Second National Conference on Housing. Philadelphia, December 4-6, 1912. Cambridge, Mass.: The University Press.

THE IMMIGRANT INVASION. By Frank Julian Warne. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company. \$2.50.

- THE NEW AMERICAN CITIZEN, A READER FOR FOREIGNERS. By Frances S. Mintz. New York: The Macmillan Company. 206 pp. 50 cents.
- PRINCIPLES OF PRUSSIAN ADMINISTRATION. By Herman Gerlach James, J.D., Ph.D.—New York: The Macmillan Company. 309 pp. \$1.50.
- REPORT OF THE LAKE SHORE RECLAMATION COMMISSION. Chicago, 1912.
- THE SOCIAL CENTER. By Edward J. Ward. New York: D. Appleton and Company. National Municipal League Series. \$1.62 postpaid.
- SOCIAL SERVICE IN VIRGINIA. Fourth Annual Report of the State Board of Charities and Corrections to the Governor of Virginia for the year ending September 30, 1912. Richmond: 1913.
- STATUTE LAW MAKING IN THE UNITED STATES. By Chester Lloyd Jones. Boston: The Boston Book Company. 327 pp.
- HOW NEW YORK CITY ADMINISTERS ITS SCHOOLS. By Ernest C. Moore. Yonkers: N. Y., World Book Company, 1913. 310 pp.
- THE CELEBRATION OF THE ONE HUNDRED AND TWENTY-FIFTH ANNIVERSARY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURG. University of Pittsburg Bulletin. Pittsburg, Pa. 1912.
- YEAR BOOK AND PROCEEDINGS OF THE FIFTY-SECOND ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE UNITED STATES BREWERS' ASSOCIATION. Boston, Mass., September 19-20, 1912. New York: The United States Brewers' Association. 1913.
- PROCEEDINGS OF THE FOURTH ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COMMERCIAL SECRETARIES. Indianapolis, Ind., September 20-21, 1912.
- PROCEEDINGS OF THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS AT THE THIRTY-NINTH ANNUAL SESSION. Held in Cleveland, Ohio, June 12-19, 1912. Edited by Alexander Johnson. Fort Wayne, Ind.: Fort Wayne Printing Company, 1912.
- PROCEEDINGS OF THE SEVENTEENTH ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF MUNICIPAL ELECTRICIANS. Held at Peoria, Ill., August 27-30, 1912.
- PROCEEDINGS OF THE THIRTY-SECOND ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE AMERICAN WATER WORKS ASSOCIATION. Held at Louisville, Ky., June 3-7, 1912. Published by the Association.
- REPORT OF THE INVESTIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES PATENT OFFICE MADE BY THE PRESIDENT'S COMMISSION ON ECONOMY AND EFFICIENCY. December 1912. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1912.
- REPORT OF THE PROCEEDINGS OF THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON THE PREVENTION OF DESTITUTION. Held at Caxton Hall. Westminster, June 11-14, 1912. London: P. S. King and Son. 1912. 593 pp.
- OLD TOWNS AND NEW NEEDS. Also the Town Extension Plan: being the Warburton Lectures for 1912, delivered by Paul Waterhouse, M.A., and Raymond Unwin, F.R.I.B.A. Manchester: The University Press. 36 cents.

Statement of the Ownership, Management, etc., of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, published quarterly at 2419-21 York Road, Baltimore, Md., required by the Act of August 24, 1912.

Name of

Post-Office Address

Editor, Clinton Rogers Woodruff, 703 North American Bldg., Philadelphia.

Publisher, National Municipal League, 703 North American Bldg., Phila.

Owners (if a corporation give names and addresses of stockholders holding 1 per cent or more of total amount of stock): National Municipal League; a voluntary organization without stockholders; William Dudley Foulke, Richmond, Ind., president; Clinton Rogers Woodruff, 703 North American Bldg., Philadelphia, secretary; George Burnham, Jr., Philadelphia, treasurer; M. N. Baker, Montclair, N. J., chairman, executive committee.

Known bondholders, mortgagees, and other security holders, holding 1 per cent or more of total amount of bonds, mortgages, or other securities: None.

CLINTON ROGERS WOODRUFF,

EDITOR.

Sworn to and subscribed before me this fifteenth day of February, 1913.

EMMA D. CHAPPELL,

(Seal)

Notary Public.

Commission expires January 18, 1917.

INDEX TO NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW

ALSO TITLE PAGE.

The editor has prepared a detailed index to Volume I of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW which will be sent on application to members of the National Municipal League and subscribers who desire it.

Address

NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW,

703 NORTH AMERICAN BUILDING,

PHILADELPHIA.